

THE SCHOOL REVIEW

A JOURNAL OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

VOLUME L * OCTOBER 1942 * NUMBER 8

Educational News and Editorial Comment

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NAVY SERVICE SCHOOLS

FROM time to time newspaper releases have informed us of breath-taking programs to train aviation pilots for the armed forces. Many persons have noted with satisfaction that four collegiate centers, the University of North Carolina, the University of Georgia, the University of Iowa, and St. Mary's College of California, have been chosen as pre-flight bases by the United States Navy. Preliminary reports indicate that the colleges have done a magnificent job in carrying out the tasks assigned to them.

To an air-minded people it is only natural that announcements of such spectacular programs should have overshadowed and tended to obscure the total amount of training which is carried on by the Navy through regular educational channels. The fact remains that there are several times as many men in training at other important but more prosaic tasks which are essential if our "seven-ocean Navy,"

now being built, is to be manned promptly and efficiently.

As a result of the pressing need for trained men in the fleet, the Navy has negotiated arrangements to secure instruction for thousands of enlisted men and officers at more than a hundred universities and colleges. There are indications, too, that more schools will be established in the future as the fleet approaches full strength and as additional adequate facilities become available. In many communities the bluejackets' uniform has become a familiar, everyday sight. At the University of Chicago, for example, so many sailors are in evidence that the Midway gives the appearance of a naval station as the men march in formation from one class to another.

This rapidly expanding training program is bound up in the Navy's requirement for more technical experts among its personnel than are needed by the other branches of the armed forces. A ship, far from the facilities

to be found on shore, must have a personnel skilled for every routine and emergency function. In all, the Navy trains its men in the skills of fifty-four occupations. The more common training now being given its new recruits initiates their skill as electricians, radio operators, signalmen, machinists, clerical workers, metal-workers, patternmakers, and ordnance men.

In the Ninth Naval District, with headquarters at Great Lakes, Illinois, the naval training schools are under the command of Rear Admiral John Downes, commandant, and are under the direct supervision of Commander O. F. Heslar, the district training officer.

There are more than thirty-five special Navy schools in the thirteen middle western states which compose the Ninth Naval District. Most of them are located on college campuses. Others are situated in naval armories of principal cities, on Chicago's Navy Pier, on the grounds of some of the large industrial firms of the Middle West, and in the public schools of Chicago, Detroit, and St. Louis. Among the larger schools now operative, the following may be mentioned.

Schools for yeomen Schools for yeomen (or secretaries) are located at Indiana University and the Naval Armory at Toledo, Ohio. The latter also has a school for storekeepers. The course of study, extending over a period of sixteen weeks, includes naval correspondence, English and spelling, naval organization,

personnel regulations, typewriting, naval forms and publications.

Storekeepers study naval organization, the organization of ships, offices, etc. Supply and the administration of supply afloat and ashore are given prominent places in the curriculum. Purchasing is studied to learn about procedure and methods, bids and contracts. It is closely related to the study of subsistence, clothing, and small stores.

Radio and signal schools Radio or signal schools, or both, are located at the University of Chicago, Northwestern University, Indianapolis Naval Armory, the University of Wisconsin, Butler University, Miami University, and the University of Illinois. The course of instruction at the radio and signal schools is organized to provide men with basic training within a period of sixteen weeks.

In the radio schools the following subjects are required: typewriting; naval procedure (which includes routing and drafting of messages, as well as standing watch); code (each student must obtain proficiency in sending and receiving code); theory of radio and matériel. No attempt is made to give an intensive course in radio; rather the aim is to give a fundamental course which will provide the trainees with a working knowledge of electricity and radio.

During the latter part of the course, outstanding trainees are often used for transmission of drill messages, so that

instructors may devote more time to the aiding of slower men. Exceptional or above-average students are often recommended for transfer, upon graduation, to advanced training schools.

In the signal schools emphasis is placed on blinker transmission and reception; semaphore; flags and flag hoist; and practical instruction in code transmission and reception, as in radio schools. English and spelling are emphasized, and special attention is given to the study of naval phraseology and terms.

Schools for electricians Electrician's mate schools are located at Iowa State College, Detroit Naval Armory, Purdue University, University of Minnesota, Morehead (Kentucky) State Teachers College, and St. Louis Naval Armory.

The following basic courses are offered: electrical theory and laboratory, wiring laboratory (designed for practical drills in wiring), tool laboratory, and practical mathematics. Practical work is given in radio, telephony, lighting, signal systems, and repair and maintenance of generators and motors.

Schools for machinists Machinist's mate schools are located at the University of Kansas, the University of Minnesota, St. Louis Armory, and North Dakota State School of Science. The men are taught bench and metal work, machine-tool operation, and engine-room operation and maintenance. Time is devoted to

practical shop training, related mathematics, and blueprint-reading.

Diesel engine schools Diesel schools are located at Iowa State College, the Navy Pier at Chicago, Cleveland Test Plant, Ohio State University, Detroit Naval Armory, Purdue University, the University of Wisconsin, and the University of Illinois. The course is designed to train bluejackets and officers in Diesel-engine operation and maintenance. Both classroom and shop work are provided.

Aviation machinist schools Aviation machinist's mate schools are located at the Chicago Vocational School and the Navy Pier, the latter being the largest naval training school in the country. The men are trained in bench and metal work, machine-tool operation, and aircraft-engine maintenance and repair. Related specialties are also offered at these schools.

The courses given at all schools must be short but comprehensive. They have been planned to give each student the foundation on which his career as a finished artisan can be built. The curriculum is standardized as to required subjects and length of instruction on the basis of the Navy's previous training experience. It is designed to familiarize the students, in a practical way, with the actual apparatus used and the conditions encountered on board ship, rather than to go deeply into theory. Usually the

instruction is supplied entirely or in large part by civilians who are responsible to the local educational institution. At the University of Chicago instruction in code, typewriting, radio theory and matériel is provided by civilians. Naval procedure is taught by naval petty officers. Classes in the schools occupy from five to eight hours a day, and the course of study in most of the schools extends for a period of sixteen weeks.

Retarded students are given special instruction in evening classes and during supervised study hours. A rigorous study program is designed for all trainees as a part of the daily routine. Those who show inaptitude are separated early from the school. They are transferred to other service schools for which they are better fitted, or they may be placed in general service.

Every enlisted man gets an opportunity to attend one of the training schools. While the new recruit is undergoing the first weeks of his introduction to the Navy, he is given a series of tests to determine his general intelligence, his basic educational status, and his aptitude. He is then assigned to one of the service schools if he is found qualified.

Because the schedule of the average day and evening is very full, the blue-jacket does not have much opportunity to mingle with undergraduates on the campus or to enjoy social life. However, special entertainments have been arranged, such as occasional dances on Saturday night and invitations to special programs and campus

events. Every university and college has been most generous in making all athletic facilities available to the trainees, and these are widely used. Ordinarily bluejackets are admitted free, or at special prices, to concerts, athletic events, and student theatrical productions which occur within their limited periods of "liberty."

The arrangement is of advantage to the Navy, to the men, and to the institutions in that it familiarizes each with the others. Also it tends to remove the institution from the "ivory tower" and to bring its personnel and facilities to grips with real and immediate problems connected with the prosecution of the war. From the standpoint of the Navy the arrangement is highly desirable, for it immediately provides housing, feeding, and instructional facilities without increasing the naval training stations beyond normal requirements. For many young men it provides an experience which they would not otherwise have had. Certainly many of them will have been stimulated to return to the same or similar institutions when they return to civil life.

EDUCATION IN THE ARMY

TO A nation which is preoccupied with building an army that will win the war, trained fighting troops come first. But military maneuvers cannot occupy the entire time of healthy fighting men in training. Entertainments at U.S.O. centers, traveling shows at army camps, and athletic contests, both intra-camp and inter-

camp—all are developing vigorously. Among the important and absorbing activities, education, too, flourishes. In the belief that our readers will be interested, we have secured from the Special Service Division of the War Department the following information about education in the Army. Parenthetically we remark that educational activities are a concomitant in a democratic army; our allies in Great Britain have demonstrated, beyond question, the value of such activities. This finding will be questioned by few, if any, readers of these columns.

Lieutenant Colonel Francis T. Spaulding, on leave from the deanship of Harvard Graduate School of Education, directs the Education Branch of the Special Service Division of the United States Army, under the command of Brigadier General Frederick Osborn. The branch provides (1) individual instruction through correspondence courses offered by the Army Institute; (2) assistance in organizing off-duty classes, lectures, and hobby groups; and (3) library materials for the use of army personnel.

Instruction is provided in off-duty hours. Emphasis is given to (1) subjects which make an immediate contribution to military efficiency; (2) instruction concerning the part which must be played by the United States in the war; (3) instruction concerning the people, resources, history, and institutions of the United States; and (4) instruction relating to the peoples,

customs, resources, languages, and histories of the other nations engaged in the war.

Seventy-seven approved colleges and universities are offering correspondence courses through the Army Institute. The University of Chicago and the American Council on Education are providing specialized service in the improvement of instructional materials for use in the educational program.

Curriculum development for the Army Institute courses is centered in a special staff of the American Council on Education. Professor Ralph W. Tyler heads the testing service organized at the University of Chicago. This service, incidentally, constitutes the largest achievement-testing program which has ever been undertaken. The Army Institute program is administered by a military staff located at the University of Wisconsin.

Correspondence study Two plans are available. The Army Institute offers sixty-four noncredit courses for which a soldier may enrol after paying a fee of two dollars. Among the courses offered are: arithmetic, algebra, geometry, English, physics, chemistry, typewriting, accounting, shorthand, automobile repairing, automobile electric technician, aviation engines, airplane maintenance, plumbing, welding, mechanical drawing, elementary electricity, industrial electricity, radio operating, surveying and mapping, and engineering mechanics.

If an enlisted man wishes to enrol for a credit course, he may choose among the courses approved by the War Department and offered through the Army Institute by the extension divisions of the seventy-seven co-operating colleges which have signed contracts with the government to provide correspondence courses for soldiers. When an enlisted man enrolls for a correspondence course approved for high-school or college credit, the government pays half the cost up to twenty dollars for any one course. The soldier pays the balance. The soldier-student in either case deals directly with the commandant of the Army Institute, Madison, Wisconsin.

Group instruction Although instruction of groups has only recently been undertaken, substantial progress has been made. Many civilian educational institutions—high schools, colleges, and universities—located near army posts have organized a variety of evening classes for enlisted men. Subjects taught are those of interest to the soldier-students. Teaching time has been donated, and equipment and facilities have been made available without charge.

The Army orientation course, mentioned by Professor Charles H. Judd, in his article appearing in this number of the *School Review*, has been in existence since December, 1941. It provides information to military personnel on the international situation which gave rise to the war, the development of military action, our in-

volvement in the struggle, and the current phase of the war.

Visual-education materials are rapidly being prepared and will soon be in use. At present only lists of suitable educational pictures are furnished, but eventually complete files of films will be available.

Foreign-language recordings are being made to introduce soldiers as rapidly as possible to common words and expressions in the languages of the countries to which American troops are being sent. For each language two double-face records are being prepared, together with a supplementary glossary of words and phrases. Records and glossaries are to be supplied to troops on transports and at foreign bases. Provision has been made for a field education staff of 150 army specialists to co-ordinate and extend the group education program. Of these, one hundred are to be assigned to service overseas.

Library Service

Many camps and posts are supplied with adequate libraries to provide for the recreational and technical reading of soldiers in training. Traveling libraries of a hundred books each are provided for posts not served by regular libraries. Overseas libraries of a hundred books for each company are also provided at the ports of embarkation. At present there are five and a half million books in the permanent and traveling army libraries, with four million being added annually.

School for Special Service

Closely related to the Education Branch of the Special Service Division is the School for Special Service Officers, which has a capacity of two hundred students a month. Officers in training for special service are given instruction and practice in developing athletic, recreational, musical, dramatic, and educational programs.

The educational program of the Army is clearly developmental (in that it has just begun) and experimental (in that it will change as the demands of the soldiers are more clearly evident). While the number of enrolments is not available for publication, it is substantial. Editorially we note with satisfaction the introduction of a forward-looking educational program in the Army and prophesy that tens of thousands of young men will welcome the program with pleasure and will profit from it immeasurably.

Training for specialists

Beyond the program which has been described, the Army has made arrangements with a number of educational institutions to train some of the specialists needed in the service. More than 120 courses are being offered in some 80 institutions. By the end of the current fiscal year, at least 60,000 enlisted men and officers will have received training in civilian institutions. In some cases the contract with the institution provides for instruction by civilians; in other cases

the institution furnishes the facilities and the army personnel gives the instruction.

In addition, the Services of Supply conducts special schools for army personnel at the following institutions: Duke University, finance officers' school; Harvard University, chaplains' school; Mississippi Southern College, Adjutant General's Department enlisted clerks' school; North Dakota Agricultural College, administrative officer candidate school; Princeton University, exchange service officers' school; University of Florida, administrative officer candidate school; University of Mississippi, Adjutant General's Department enlisted clerks' school.

The director of training in the War Department Services of Supply who is responsible for the establishment of these schools is Brigadier General C. R. Huebner.

KEEPING NECESSARY YOUNG
PEOPLE IN SCHOOL
AND COLLEGE

THE question of where young people, especially men, can best serve their country—whether in industry or in the armed services of the country—is a perplexing one for the individuals concerned. Recently two eminent university presidents, James Bryant Conant, of Harvard University, and Robert Maynard Hutchins, of the University of Chicago, have issued clear and thought-provoking proposals.

Writing in the *Atlantic Monthly* for July, President Conant says, in part:

This fact which we cannot blink makes it imperative, I believe, that as far as possible the decision as to where a man will serve should be made by the government itself. . . . If the Manpower Commission surveys the problem and concludes that some able-bodied young men must be trained for non-military posts, then the Commission should pick the men and order them into this branch of national service. In time of war no college or individual should be asked to shoulder the heavy responsibility of determining who should face danger and who should not.

President Conant argues convincingly that, since most of the officers in our rapidly expanding armed forces come from the college-trained men, the opportunity should not be restricted by the accident of birth or the economic position of the family. Present programs for enlistment of college men, with the possibility of future commissions for many, provide for the enlistment of approximately 160,000 men each year. In round numbers there are 1,200,000 men of any given age of the high-school and college years, of whom some 250,000 actually go to college. President Conant points out that nearly a million are excluded because they cannot go to college, and he asks reasonably:

Can anyone doubt that of this large pool of a million young men there are at least another 160,000 of ability and native worth equal to that of the students selected from the college population? . . .

Personally, I wish that it had been possible for the government to have chosen the 160,000 men purely on the basis of merit, without regard for their economic situation, and to have financed this group for whatever further education was required by the Army

or the Navy. Such a scheme would have more nearly opened a military career to the talented, irrespective of the accidents of birth.

President Conant recognizes, too, that aid is necessary at the secondary level if our educational system is to be truly democratic and to train each individual so that he can attain the position in which he may serve best his own interests and the good of his country:

In short, I believe two steps should be taken to utilize more effectively the latent talent of our younger men. Both cost money, but I believe that, solely in terms of the winning of the war, both steps should be worth all the millions that would be required. The first step is to keep the most promising youths in high school; the second, to send them on to college. Federal funds would be required, but this does not mean federal control of education. For the money could be best spent through local agencies and by those closely in touch with the public-school system and our colleges.

Editorially we have only praise for the statesmanlike pronouncements of President Conant to which we have alluded, as well as the more comprehensive statement of President Hutchins which is noted below.

President Hutchins in the *Saturday Evening Post* for August 15, under the title "Blueprint for Wartime Education," outlines in trenchant fashion a seven-point plan which complements the proposal of President Conant. In amplifying the need for financial assistance to democratize our colleges and secondary schools by enabling poor but able students to continue, President Hutchins says, in part:¹

¹ Reprinted by special permission of *The Saturday Evening Post*, copyright 1942, by The Curtis Publishing Company.

Not intelligence but money decides whether the high-school graduate shall go to college. Not intelligence but money decides whether he shall graduate. A study in Milwaukee disclosed that, whereas all the high-school graduates whose fathers had incomes over \$8,000 were in college, only a fifth of those whose fathers made under \$500 were there. A study in Kansas revealed that a majority of superior high-school graduates were not in college. Most of those who were presumably best fitted by mental ability to receive training in higher institutions were not candidates for such training, and 40 per cent of those who did enter college had a mental rating below the average of their group. After a careful test administered to 19,000 high-school Seniors in North Carolina, A. M. Jordan concluded that "literally thousands of students who are scholastically able to do so are not continuing their academic training, while thousands of students of the poorest abilities are attempting to continue their work in academic halls."

It is necessary to have a comprehensive plan for apportioning our man power to the armed forces, science, and industry, and this is the duty and responsibility of the War Manpower Commission. To make his plan work, President Hutchins feels that voluntary and competitive recruitment must be abolished in favor of allocation by the Manpower Commission. Following this step the draft age should be lowered to eighteen. The various reserve officers' training programs must next be modified by paying the members while they are enrolled. Following this step, enough young men and women should be admitted to the colleges to provide the officers, the scientists, and the educated industrial workers needed for total war. According to President Hutchins:

We could then admit to our colleges, on the basis of general ability and promise, enough young men and women to fill those requirements. If volunteering were prohibited and the students paid, we should have no difficulty in getting them and no difficulty in keeping them until they had had the training which the public interest demands.

In no sense should the training program be dictated by the federal government. During the first two years in college these young people should be given a liberal education, controlled by the colleges, before aptitude for special training is determined and the young person is assigned to the specialized program in which he can serve best. Those who have shown no special aptitude or skill should be placed in active status and sent to replacement centers.

Those who at that stage show that they are qualified to go on to be trained in specific branches, should be taken into the Army or Navy and allowed to complete the college or university courses preparing them for such work. . . .

At the end of the Sophomore year, in conformity with the comprehensive plan to be developed by the War Manpower Commission, the men and women best qualified for the laboratories and the war plants should be drafted for the advanced study preparing them for such work. When I say drafted I mean drafted. They must be put into the work the country needs to have them do. They, like their contemporaries being trained for the armed forces, must be paid by the government, so selection will be in terms of brains and not in terms of father's income.

In addition President Hutchins would require every student in college to take military training as an extra-curriculum activity:

If military training does not accompany education, the Army neglects a great pool of men conveniently assembled for training, the student loses an advantage he might easily get in his off hours, and the colleges are open to attack on the ground that their population is deferred without doing anything which in the public mind is clearly and unquestionably military.

As a final step in the program, the colleges and universities should be utilized more effectively in giving specialized training to the thousands of men who could profit from it and in preparing the teaching aids needed in the instructional programs in the camps:

If anybody in the United States knows how to teach, the colleges and universities know how. The services now have thousands of men in the ranks who should have further training. These men should be sent to the institutions best equipped to train them for the work they should do. The services are now using five universities to train meteorologists. They are using many for radio instruction. This practice can and should be extended to cover the countless fields which mechanized, technological warfare has brought to new importance. And in every field, new or old, the colleges and universities can train the teachers and prepare the teaching manuals used for instruction in the camps. These are the things they know how to do better than anybody else.

The suggestions are drastic, but invigorating. They will assist in winning the war, but the results of making it possible for able young people to attend school would extend far beyond the war years. Such a plan, if and when adopted, will prove to be of such value that it will be extended indefinitely to enable all who are able and willing to profit from advanced training to do so.

THE COST OF HIGH-SCHOOL ATTENDANCE

IF THE suggestions of President Hutchins and President Conant are to be followed, financial aid at the high-school level is imperative in order that democratic progression of the able may not be partially cut off at the source. Rightly, both are concerned more with university than with secondary-school students. In a journal devoted to secondary education we add a few observations about the need for aid at the high-school level.

How large are the cash costs of attending the "free" American high school has not been generally realized, even by school superintendents. Recent studies carried out by Professor Harold C. Hand,¹ of the University of Maryland, indicate that the actual expenditures of the individual pupil in six high schools in the Middle West and the East averaged \$125 annually, while the principals of 150 schools estimated the annual cost of attendance at no more than \$15, with an average of \$7.50. As would be expected, the actual cost increased as a pupil progressed through the school, being, on the average, \$95 in Grade IX and \$154 in Grade XII.

Professor Hand shows, too, that the children from the lower economic

¹ Harold C. Hand, "America Must Have Genuinely Democratic Schools," *General Education in the American High School*, pp. 17-20. Edited by a Sub-committee of the General Education Committee, Commission on Curricula of Secondary Schools and Institutions of Higher Education of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1942.

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groups are "frozen out" of a large number of activities simply because they cannot afford to participate. Coming, as many pupils do, from families with annual incomes of less than \$1,000, they simply cannot pay the bill for necessities, to say nothing of "keeping up with the junior Joneses" in the matter of tickets to athletic contests, class plays, or membership in the band. For example, children from professional families spent \$154 each, while those from the families of semiskilled and unskilled laborers spent \$52 and \$54, respectively, during a school year.

Two decades ago Counts¹ found the ratio between the percentage of pupils in high school from the highest economic group and the percentage from the lowest economic group to be about 17 : 1. The ratio increased from about 10 : 1 for Freshmen to 38 : 1 for Seniors, since the poor children tended to drop out rapidly as they reached the age at which compulsory education ends rather than continue without the funds necessary for attendance with dignity.

This finding, with variations only in the ratio, has been verified with monotonous regularity ever since Counts's initial study. For example, in a study of Maryland youth, Bell²

found that children from the topmost economic groups continued in school beyond Grade VIII with a relative frequency eleven times that observed for children from the lowest end of the family-income scale. His conclusion is not surprising: "The strongest single factor in determining how far a youth goes in school is the occupation of his father." The findings of the Regents' Inquiry in New York State³ and Lovejoy's findings in North Carolina,⁴ to mention only two of many, are in close agreement. To be sure, not all the children from low-income families are able students who drop out for financial reasons, but more than half of those studied by Bell mentioned their economic situations as reasons for discontinuing high-school attendance.

Assistance for needy but able pupils, earned by doing necessary work in the community or the school and sufficient in amount to keep them in school at a comfortable, not luxurious, level, is an educational *must* in a democracy. Reports from Great Britain indicate that exceptionally able high-school students already enjoy such support and that after the war

Youth Commission. Washington: American Council on Education, 1938.

¹ George Sylvester Counts, *The Selective Character of American Secondary Education*, pp. 27, 37. Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 19. Chicago: Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1922.

² Howard M. Bell, *Youth Tell Their Story*, pp. 58, 63. A Study of the Conditions and Attitudes of Young People in Maryland between the Ages of 16 and 24. Conducted for the American

³ Ruth E. Eckert and Thomas O. Marshall, *When Youth Leave School*. The Regents' Inquiry into the Character and Cost of Public Education in the State of New York. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1939.

⁴ Gordon W. Lovejoy, "Paths to Maturity: Findings of the North Carolina Youth Survey, 1938-1940." Chapel Hill, North Carolina: Co-operative Personnel Study, University of North Carolina, 1940 (mimeographed).

the complete cost of high-school attendance, including maintenance, will be furnished to all who can and will profit.

Edward C. Elliott, on leave from the presidency of Purdue University, heads up the section in the War Manpower Commission which has the responsibility of drafting plans for the orderly mobilization and utilization of high-school and college youth. He and his associates are now hard at work. Newspaper reports indicate that a satisfactory plan may cost "between three and three hundred million dollars." Admittedly the cost will be high; it will be worth every cent. It is heartening to know that Dr. Elliott is cognizant of, and sympathetic to, the needs of both the high-school and the college groups.

Numerous administrative difficulties are involved, but these can and will be solved. The first requisite is the formulation of a plan by the War Manpower Commission, to be followed by enabling legislation and a congressional appropriation. In the opinion of this writer, the possibility of securing such aid is much brighter than the prospect of securing assistance for education through the more recent bills which have been before Congress. The aid is to be given to individuals and not to institutions; Congress has always been interested in individuals. There need be no discrimination on the basis of creed or color, and no complicated formulas for equalization between states. We hope and believe that the columns of the

School Review devoted to news notes will report shortly that a plan has been authorized and is in full operation.

RESOURCE UNITS FOR TEACHERS

SOME time ago the National Association of Secondary-School Principals and the National Council for the Social Studies secured a grant from the General Education Board to prepare resource units for teachers. A resource unit is a storehouse from which teachers may draw both teaching information and suggestions as to methods. The major portion of the resource unit, known as the "analysis," consists of fifteen thousand words written by a recognized authority in the field. To this are added approximately four thousand words of teaching aids from which the busy teacher may draw suggestions. Teachers far from the research findings available in university or governmental centers are thus assured of authentic and up-to-date materials on the political, economic, and social questions which perplex us all. In addition, the materials bear the stamp of authority because they have been prepared by recognized authorities and are approved by a joint committee of the two organizations and are distributed through their Washington offices.

Editorial comment was made about the project in the *School Review* for October, 1941. Since that time there has been substantial progress. To date five resource units, which were listed in these pages in the June, 1942, issue

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of this journal, have been published under the general title "Problems in American Life." Five others, listed below, are in press and will be published by the date of the appearance of this number of the *School Review*.

6. T. V. Smith, G. R. Negley, and Robert Bush, *Democracy and Dictatorship: Teaching American Youth To Understand Their Own and the Enemy's Ways of Life*

7. E. W. Burgess and Joseph Baumgartner, *The American Family: The Problems of Family Relations Facing American Youth*

8. C. L. Christensen, Noble Clark, and Royce H. Knapp, *Agriculture: Teaching Youth about the Problems of the Farmer and Rural America*

9. Alvin H. Hansen and Laurence E. Leamer, *Economic Problems of the Post-war World: Democratic Planning for Full Employment*

10. Thorsten Sellin and Paul R. Busey, *Crime: Teaching American Youth the Causes and Costs of Crime*

It is necessary and desirable that problems directly connected with the war and post-war conditions should be highlighted, without overlooking the problems which confront us daily. Thus the treatment of the problem of full employment in the post-war world by Alvin H. Hansen, professor of political economy at Harvard University and special economic adviser to the Board of Governors of the Federal Reserve System, is pertinent and invigorating. Professor Carl Friedrich, also of Harvard University, is preparing a manuscript dealing with the causes

and effects of war. A document by Max Lerner on *International Organization after the War* may be expected shortly. Charles W. Eliot III, director of the National Resources Planning Board, is at work on *Planning after the War*. Other units concerned with public education, consumer problems, urban and rural ways of life, public administration in the United States, housing, and the health of the nation may also be expected in due season.

Each of the pamphlets in the "Problems in American Life" series may be purchased for thirty cents, or any four for a dollar, from the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, the National Council for the Social Studies, or the National Education Association—all three located at 1201 Sixteenth Street, Northwest, Washington, D.C. With each order of four pamphlets is included an additional booklet prepared by I. James Quillen, of Stanford University, entitled *Using a Resource Unit*.

Certainly during war years authentic materials about important and controversial issues are needed just as much as they are in normal times, if not more. The "Problems in American Life" series meets a real need on the part of teachers and administrators who are seeking material to vitalize the curriculum.

PAUL B. JACOBSON

WHO'S WHO FOR OCTOBER

Authors of news notes and articles The news notes in this issue have been prepared by PAUL B. JACOBSON, principal of the University High School and assistant professor of education at the University of Chicago. CHARLES H. JUDD, Charles F. Grey distinguished service professor emeritus of education and formerly chairman of the Department of Education at the University of Chicago, in the first of two articles, describes the educational and social changes which are certain to bring changes in American education. STEPHEN M. COREY, professor of educational psychology and superintendent of the Laboratory Schools at the University of Chicago, and GUSTAV J. FROELICH, supervisor of the Records Office of the Laboratory Schools and instructor in education at the same institution, tell of a study identifying areas where pupils might be expected to accept responsibilities and showing the extent of pupil acceptance of these responsibilities. GEORGE E. MYERS, professor emeritus of education at the University of Michigan, takes exception to the Judd Club report on youth work programs, which recommended continuance of such programs under the direction of the federal government, and proposes a new local organization to care for unemployed youth. AILSIE M. STEVENSON, assistant professor of home-economics education at the State College of Washington, Pullman, Washington, and assistant state supervisor of home-economics

education, and PAULINE S. WALKER, teacher of home economics at Grant High School, Portland, Oregon, report a study undertaken to determine the amount of consumer education provided in high-school courses of study and in textbooks in home economics. ADELINE ALDRICH RIEFLING, teacher of Reading-English at Beaumont High School and teacher-in-charge of remedial reading and group treatment in the Municipal Psychiatric and Child Guidance Clinic, St. Louis, Missouri, describes the enrolment of, and the procedures used in, experimental Reading-English classes organized to care for ninth- and tenth-grade pupils who were retarded in reading. GRAYSON N. KEFAUVER, dean of the School of Education at Stanford University, and DAN MCNAUGHTON, graduate student at the same institution, present selected references on various phases of the organization of secondary education.

Reviewers of books E. C. BOLMEIER, director of secondary education in the public schools of Jackson, Mississippi. MAX D. ENGELHART, director of examinations in the Chicago City Junior Colleges, Chicago, Illinois. PERCIVAL W. HUTTON, professor of education at the University of Pittsburgh. J. LLOYD TRUMP, principal of the Horace Mann School in Gary, Indiana. THEODORE L. HARRIS, assistant professor of education at Allegheny College, Meadville, Pennsylvania.

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THE FUTURE OF AMERICAN EDUCATION. I¹

CHARLES H. JUDD

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THE Army of the United States has taken the unprecedented step of requiring, under military authority, the presentation to the troops of a series of orientation lectures, fifteen in number, describing the military and diplomatic occurrences which led to the entrance of this country into the war. Mimeographed outlines of these lectures have been sent to commanding officers with the directive that the contents of the lectures be presented orally to every company of soldiers. The lectures are not to be read as mimeographed but are to be expanded with such supplementary materials as are available in order to make clear the causes and progress of events which began when Japan seized Manchuria and other Chinese territory and Italy overran Ethiopia. The later lectures of the series describe the spread of aggressive attack by the Germans and the Italians on the continent of Europe and the hostilities in the whole Pacific area.

¹ This paper, prepared for the Sir John Adams Lecture at the University of California at Los Angeles and delivered on June 1, 1942, is published in two parts in the October and November issues of the *School Review*. The first part indicates the present conditions which show clearly that changes will be made in the American educational system. The second part describes in some detail the changes which seem certain to be made.

It will be remembered that during the first World War the colleges and universities of this country organized and delivered to their students orientation lectures on war issues. These lectures supplemented the ordinary courses in history, economics, and industrial relations. In that war the Army limited its educational activities to the strictly military training of soldiers and officers. In the present war it is officially recognized that something more than military drill is necessary if the young men of this nation are to carry on effectively the operations of defense and offense with which American armed forces are charged.

CHANGES IN AMERICAN ARMY

The reasons for this new undertaking on the part of the Army are not difficult to discover. The twenty-five years that have elapsed since this country entered the first World War have witnessed changes in American culture and American education the magnitude of which most people do not realize. The idea that a systematic appeal to the intelligence of thinking people is a responsibility of government did not exist in 1917 in any such form or degree as it does in 1942. Today the General Staff of the Army recognizes its obligation to convince

soldiers that the war is a just and inevitable answer to plundering tyranny.

A partial explanation of the Army orientation lectures can be given by citing certain statistics. In 1916, just before the United States entered the first World War, there were 1,700,000 pupils enrolled in the high schools of this country. That number has steadily increased. When Pearl Harbor was attacked, the number of pupils receiving advanced education in high schools was approximately 7,000,000. The significance of those numbers is that present-day young people are determined in their attitudes, far more than were the young people of 1916, by considerations that appeal to trained intelligence.

Statistics regarding the Army correspond closely to those just mentioned with respect to enrolment in American high schools. Seventy-nine per cent of the men in the Army of the first World War had no education beyond that received in the elementary grades. In the present Army the percentage of soldiers who have had only an elementary-school education is more than cut in half. The average schooling of present-day American soldiers is that of the tenth grade. The percentage of college graduates is more than twice what it was in the earlier Army; it now amounts to more than 10 per cent of the total.¹

¹ "The Educational Level of Men of Military Age in the United States." Sixteenth Census of the United States: 1940, Series P-9, No. 15, June 20, 1942.

EFFECT OF WAR ON POPULAR INTELLIGENCE

There are other facts about the present Army which are of major significance to the student of American education. Not only is the level of schooling of soldiers something entirely new, but the certainty that the war itself will produce marked effects on popular intelligence can be readily seen. The mechanical equipment that is in daily use in the Army calls for skills and knowledge far higher than were ever required in earlier wars. Even the little jeeps, with their four-wheel drives, are giving men acquaintance with contrivances which they will never forget. The great bombing planes at the other end of the scale of mechanical equipment represent a level of human achievement that compels men to take on training which in later times of peace cannot fail to make its effects apparent in hundreds of constructive crafts.

NEW KNOWLEDGE OF GEOGRAPHY

Not only through contact with mechanical inventions, but in other ways also, military service is giving the men broader views than they had when they enlisted. In times past, Americans have traveled to some extent, but today millions of them are going to places the names of which they have never heard. Troopships are leaving American ports every day, taking men to Labrador, Greenland, Iceland, Australia, Africa, Ireland, England, the islands of the eastern and western seas, South America, and

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Asia. Before the war is over, there will be an enlargement of American geographical knowledge that will cover every part of the globe, and that knowledge will be vivid and concrete. The distances between this country and others will be registered in remembered days of travel. Minds of American youth will be filled with pictures of tropical jungles, coral seas, and frozen polar regions. During the first World War the soldiers of the United States saw something of England, France, and Germany. Fighting extended over a front of some four hundred miles. The present war is global in its extent.

The United States is the one great civilization that has terminated its ordinary study of geography in Grade VII. Today not only the young men of the United States who are stationed all the way from the Aleutian Islands to Melbourne and from Iceland to Iran but also the stay-at-homes are studying maps and reading about what the Army calls "terrains." It is going to be impossible, when the war is over, to limit geography and geographical thinking. There will be very little danger of the kind of mistake that Mark Twain recorded in the conversation of Tom Sawyer and Huckleberry Finn. They had floated down the Mississippi River, it will be remembered, and their boat had come to land. "This must be Illinois," said Tom. "No," said Huck, "Illinois is red."

NEW KNOWLEDGE OF OTHER PEOPLES

Americans are learning not only geography but also facts about people

which they never knew before. Up to recent times we of this nation have not been much different from the ancient Greeks and Hebrews. The Greeks thought of themselves as a very superior people. All other peoples were barbarians. The Hebrews divided the population of the world into their own kind and Gentiles. We have thought of the inhabitants of many other lands as, at best, only semicivilized. Because we have more telephones and automobiles than other nations, because we have more newspapers and radios, we have been disposed to wrap the robes of complacency around ourselves and think of others as less cultured than we are.

Our soldiers have already found that we have been ignorant. For example, in far-away Iceland, about which we had until very recently heard almost nothing, there lives a nation of cultivated, thrifty, hard-working, free, democratic people. Most Americans do not know the Icelanders. They do not know our connection with that island. They do not even know that in the capital city of Iceland there is a gift of the United States Congress, a colossal statue of an Iclander, one Leif Ericson, who, five hundred years before Columbus crossed the Atlantic, spent a winter with his thirty-five sailor companions on the North American continent somewhere in the neighborhood of what is now called "Cape Cod." Leif was the son of a Norwegian who, like many of the members of the best families of Norway, had left the mother-country be-

cause he was unwilling to submit to the tyrannical rule of one of the chieftains who had conquered all the scattered tribes of Norway and had made himself ruler over all that country. Eric the Red, the father of Leif, had settled in Iceland and afterward had gone to Greenland. Eric the Red was one of the settlers who established in Iceland government by a popular assembly. In 1930 the people of Iceland celebrated the thousandth anniversary of their governing assembly—the oldest democratic parliament in the world. The climate of Iceland is not what its name implies. The warm ocean currents give Iceland a mean temperature like that of our national capital. The island is a volcanic island. Much of its inland has little or no soil because the volcanic rock is not yet eroded. Along the coast, however, and on some of the mountainsides there is grass for pasturage, and there is soil which permits the cultivation of a few crops. The people live by farming, animal husbandry, fishing, and hunting eider ducks. They are an educated people. On almost every farm there are members of the family who speak and read English as well as the native Icelandic language. The people of Iceland have preserved the legends of the old Scandinavian tribes. In domestic circles during long winter evenings and on public holidays, story-telling somewhat like the repetitions of history by the Greek bards was common in earlier times and is still common.

Iceland will certainly become an increasingly familiar part of our world.

It will be known in the future, not merely as a landing station for airplanes but also for its contributions to human culture. During the medieval years, while Europe was in turmoil with the Crusades and the subsequent wars, this remote island was at peace. Monks and priests found their way to this quiet haven and taught the people how to write. They recorded the stories not only of island life but of life on the northern parts of the European continent. The world owes to Icelandic sagas and Eddas much of what it knows about the beliefs and history of the Vikings and the Scandinavian tribes.

NEW ATTITUDES TOWARD HISTORY

It is altogether certain that American schoolbooks on geography and history will pay more attention to Iceland in the future. The fact is that the roots of democratic thinking reach down into Scandinavian soil much deeper than they do into the soil of those southern countries which have been most vigorously exploited in American education. The fundamental theories of life and government that have been handed down from Greece and Rome are not democratic. Describing the civilizations along the shores of the Mediterranean as "republics" has given pupils in American schools distorted ideas. Back of every free citizen of Athens were at least two slaves, who had no share in government but produced the citizen's food and such luxuries as he enjoyed. Greece was an oligarchy. The attitude

that the modern world has toward hand labor is undoubtedly derived, in large measure, from the fact that labor was performed in classical times by slaves. Citizens spent their time in debate, speculation, and soldiering. Citizens were the white-collar people of ancient times.

As for Rome, her example has been even more harmful than that of Greece. Rome prospered because her armies plundered. American young people have been told to avoid war with all its evils, but, as soon as they reach the stage in their education when they are supposed to be mature enough to master a foreign language, they have been immersed in the Gallic Wars and led to believe that, through their study of these criminal assaults on northern tribes, they will achieve higher levels of intellectual life. Rome was in ancient times, and is today, the home of military aggression.

Contrasted with the traditions and the politics of the Mediterranean are the industrious habits of the people of Iceland and the other Scandinavian countries. Contrasted with the civilizations of middle and southern Europe are the institutions of the democracies of Sweden, Norway, and Denmark. By way of England, where the racial stock is the same as in these northern countries, America inherited ideals of personal freedom and equal rights before the law. It will be a wholesome experience for American soldiers to come into direct contact with the people of the north of Europe, whose social ideals are akin to our own.

NEW KNOWLEDGE OF OTHER CIVILIZATIONS

When they come into contact with the inhabitants of the islands of the southwestern Pacific, American soldiers will discover civilizations different from those which most people have pictured to themselves. Long years ago American whalers hunting in the remote Pacific discovered a harbor on one of the Samoan Islands. It proved to be the best harbor in that part of the world. The people of the Samoan Islands were a happy race, living in the midst of tropical vegetation that yielded abundant food in response to little labor. The Samoans fished along the shore. They visited from village to village, enjoying the unbounded hospitality which was accorded in every house to any visitor. They had and still preserve a unique art produced by weaving palm fibers into beautiful mats.

Europeans went to Samoa and began to change the habits of the people. Europeans quarreled about possession of the islands. They exploited the natives. At one time war vessels of three powerful nations—England, Germany, and the United States—lay at anchor side by side in a Samoan harbor in threatening attitudes because each nation was suspicious of the others and all were bent on securing possession of the islands. Fortunately a violent tropical storm blew up and wrecked the war vessels. Later, news was brought that, even before the tropical storm had prevented an outbreak of hostilities, a settlement of claims had

been reached in Berlin and the islands had been allotted to Germany and the United States.

There is some question now whether the lot of the natives has been improved by the imposition on them of some of the importations brought by invading foreigners. One is almost disposed to regret that the Atlantic Charter adopted by President Roosevelt and Prime Minister Churchill had not been drafted long enough ago to assure to the Samoans that independence which is promised in the Charter in these words:

They respect the right of all peoples to choose the form of government under which they will live; and they wish to see sovereign rights and self-government restored to those who have been forcibly deprived of them;

They will endeavor, with due respect for their existing obligations, to further the enjoyment by all states, great or small, victor or vanquished, of access, on equal terms, to the trade and to the raw materials of the world which are needed for their economic prosperity;

They desire to bring about the fullest collaboration between all nations in the economic field with the object of securing, for all, improved labor standards, economic adjustment, and social security.

RECOGNITION OF INTERNATIONAL INTERDEPENDENCE

There are other contributions which this war is making to the education of the American army and of the whole nation. The citizens of the United States are learning what was accomplished by the Hollanders who went to Java equipped with scientific knowledge and mechanical inventions. These Hollanders planted new crops and

taught the natives how to prosper. Dutch colonials improved the living conditions of the natives, establishing entirely new standards of sanitation, health, and production. The idea that some people have about colonization—that it is a form of indefensible exploitation—is being changed by pictures and descriptions of what was done for Java. At the same time the war has brought home to this country a realization of the intimate relation between Java and the United States. We used to think of natural rubber as a commodity that came in unlimited quantities from someplace where people were eager to collect rubber in return for American dollars. We now know that the supply of natural rubber depends on free, open sea lanes and on maintaining human relations of a friendly kind with distant peoples who have a climate that we do not possess.

Other commodities besides rubber have to be imported by the United States. A Subcommittee of the Committee on Foreign Affairs of the United States House of Representatives prepared and published in 1935 a report on tin. A few Americans read this report, but now it has become a matter of common knowledge that this country is bound by ties of the closest interdependence to the Orient and that we must look to the East for tin, which we cannot ourselves produce. It may not be out of place to quote a few sentences from the report of 1935:

Tin as a strategic material in the scheme of national defense . . . is essential in the

manufacture of certain munitions and certain ordnance necessary to the maintenance of the military and naval establishments of the government and to the conduct of military and naval operations.

Following this statement there are listed thirty-seven items of army equipment and twenty items of navy equipment in which tin is used. After presenting these lists, the report continues:

It will be recognized at once that while there are comprised in the above list certain specific uses for the metal peculiar to the War and Navy Departments, its actual use in national defense during time of war will include all of the major uses set forth under the industrial applications of this material.¹

It requires no abstract or theoretical discourse on international relations to convince the American people who are faced with shortages of rubber, tin, and other commodities that the modern industrial world is an interdependent entity. No country can draw the bounds of its prosperity at the limits of its own territory.

Besides discovering civilizations which we have never known and finding out the dependence of our national life on materials obtainable only in parts of the world which we do not own, Americans are today gradually cultivating a new attitude of toler-

ance. We are learning to think of the Chinese as a freedom-loving, resourceful people. We read stories about these, our distant neighbors, and regard the stories as some of the best contributions to our current literature. We eagerly scan the newspapers every day for news from eastern Europe and applaud the brave defense of their country by the Russians. There is promise that our schoolbooks in the future will do less than they have done in the past to influence our thinking against the English, who have long been reputed to have tyrannized over Americans because 150 years ago they tried to secure from the American colonies, in which they had invested large sums, some return from the capital that they had lent to emigrants.

NEW ATTITUDE TOWARD GOVERNMENT

Not all the important contributions to American thinking have been recounted in the examples which have been cited. The national unity that is developing out of war co-operation might properly be made a subject of lengthy consideration. The growing confidence in government as related to individual well-being is creating a concept of the nature of political organization that is very different from the ideas which used to be common.

The historian who writes in the future of the changes taking place today in popular attitudes will certainly note the fact that democracy has adopted as one of its major aims the explanation of its policies to all the people. Take the case of governmental at-

¹ *Tin Investigation*, pp. 12, 13. Report of the Subcommittee of the House Committee on Foreign Affairs on H. Res. 404, 73d Congress, 2d Session, and H. Res. 71, 74th Congress, 1st Session, To Authorize an Investigation into the Extent to Which the United States Is Dependent upon Foreign Nations for Its Supply of Tin, and for Other Purposes. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1935.

tempts to avoid inflation. There was a time when the very word "inflation" was heard only in graduate courses in economics. The causes of inflation were obscure. The common man regarded the trials and tribulations that came from economic dislocations as among the consequences of modern commercial life that must be blindly accepted. Today every newspaper in the land is discussing inflation and its causes in words of two syllables, understandable even by pupils in the elementary schools. Government officials are publishing statistics and graphs telling everyone the exact state of the market and the trends of prices. It used to be said that Americans were ignorant of economics. It was true that money and its movements were thought of as beyond popular comprehension. Gradually the limitations of intelligence are being removed. The time is at hand when economic information will be as common as reports about the weather.

IMPLICATIONS FOR EDUCATION

What do these facts mean for American education? The colleges are holding meetings discussing what they can do to aid in the war effort. They are asking for governmental scholarships and deferments for their students. Vacations are being eliminated from educational programs in order that young men may be graduated before they are called on to join the armed forces. Educational committees and commissions have been

organized by associations of school administrators and teachers to plan for the better support and more efficient conduct of national education. There has been an enormous extension of vocational education both in schools and in industrial plants. Women and girls are being trained and employed as never before. Discussions are being held with respect to the problems that the country must face when demobilization comes and the men now employed in the Army and the Navy have to be re-assimilated into civil life.

It is obviously impossible to undertake, in the compass of a single short treatment of the future, any adequate discussion of all the topics which these educational movements suggest. There will undoubtedly be an increase after the war in the amount of education available for everyone. It would be interesting to review the trends which have gradually been making the high schools part of the common-school system. There are indications that the day is not far distant when the junior college will become a universal part of the secondary school. It would be legitimate to canvass once more the cogent arguments that have been presented several times by national committees for large federal support of public education. It is certainly clear that, if there is to be equality of opportunity for the young people of this country, the support of schools cannot be left to local communities. The part that the central government will ulti-

mately play in contributions other than financial aid to schools is another of the problems calling for careful and unbiased consideration.

These and other like administrative problems are in process of evolutionary solution. They will not be discussed further at this time because, in the belief of the present speaker, they are of less importance than the problems that have been brought to the focus of attention by all the examples

which have been reviewed up to this point. After all, the administration of the educational system is important only because it makes instruction possible. The content of instruction and the effects which instruction produces on human mental attitudes and human action are the important matters for consideration in planning for the future of American education.

[To be concluded]

A HIGH-SCHOOL STAFF STUDIES PUPIL RESPONSIBILITY

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THE members of the high-school staff of the University of Chicago Laboratory Schools meet bi-weekly to study the problems that arise in connection with their teaching, curriculum development, and research. The meetings are organized on a voluntary basis and are attended by approximately 80 per cent of the faculty. During the academic year 1940-41 the group concentrated on a series of attempts to improve pupil acceptance of responsibility. This article summarizes their activity, which is illustrative of a type of in-service research. The writers are indebted to many members of the high-school staff who provided the data necessary for the present report.

PUPIL RESPONSIBILITIES IDENTIFIED

Early in the discussion of the problem it became evident that the first step should be to identify those situations in which pupils should accept responsibility for their own actions. Consequently this request was made of the faculty:

Will you list as many specific situations as occur to you in which you expect your pupils to accept responsibility? Make the situations so definite that it would be possible for another person to check the degree to which

the pupils are co-operating with the school in accepting their responsibilities. Examples might be: (1) going directly from the class to the library without undue loitering, (2) bringing permission from home for a field trip without a second request.

The following similar request was made of all the pupils:

The blank spaces below are for you to use to describe specific things that U. High pupils can do to show that they are willing to accept responsibility without the need of continuous teacher supervision. Two examples might be: (1) going directly from class to the library without undue loitering, (2) bringing permission from home for a field trip without a second request.

There was a great deal of similarity in the situations listed by the faculty and those named by the pupils. All these instances of responsible pupil behavior could be grouped under four headings: (1) those involving the pupil as an individual, (2) those involving the relations between the pupil and his peers, (3) those involving the relations between the pupil and the staff, and (4) those involving general pupil relations, such as caring for visitors at the school. The forty-two specific pupil responsibilities mentioned most frequently were selected for further study.

RELATIVE IMPORTANCE OF VARIOUS PUPIL RESPONSIBILITIES

The next step in the project involved an attempt to get from both teachers and pupils their judgments of the importance of each of the forty-two most frequently mentioned situations in which pupils are expected to accept responsibility. The staff and the pupils were asked to evaluate these situations in terms of their being "Very important," "Rather important," or "Of slight importance." Table 1 summarizes their judgments and indicates, as well, the extent to which the staff and the pupils agreed. At least 70 per cent of both the teachers and the pupils believed that the following were "Very important."

The pupil as an individual:

Plays fair, does not cheat.

Does something about own progress in school, plans ahead.

Admits mistakes and is willing to take the consequences.

Relations between the pupil and his peers:

Is quiet when others want to listen, work, or recite.

Relations between the pupil and the staff:

Keeps appointments and promises.

Does each assignment and accepted task as well as possible.

Takes care of school property and equipment.

Takes care of own make-up work and extra help needs.

Only three items were judged to be "Very important" approximately 25 per cent more frequently by teachers than by pupils. The three items were:

The pupil as an individual:

Does something about own progress in school, plans ahead.

Relations between the pupil and his peers:

Is considerate of others in the gymnasium and on the playground.

Does not tease others during the class period.

Similarly, three items were judged to be "Very important" at least 25 per cent more frequently by pupils than by teachers. These three items were:

The pupil as an individual:

Hands in neat, legible papers.

Relations between the pupil and the staff:

Gets assignments straight the first time.

General relations:

Inform parents of progress in school work.

The two lists representing differences in faculty and pupil judgment appeared about as contradictory to the staff of the University High School as they must to the reader. Particularly did the items thought to be more important by the pupils seem puzzling. The fact that children rather than faculty members should be impressed by the importance of handing in neat, legible papers, or getting assignments straight the first time, or informing parents of progress in school work was difficult to rationalize. One explanation might be that the pupils believed the teachers considered such responsibilities more important than the staff was willing to admit.

Another interesting fact shown in Table 1 relates to the percentage of judgments in the columns labeled "Of slight importance." All the forty-two specific pupil responsibilities—except "Completes assignments promptly,

TABLE 1

RELATIVE IMPORTANCE OF FORTY-TWO SPECIFIC PUPIL RESPONSIBILITIES AS JUDGED
BY FACULTY AND PUPILS OF UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO HIGH SCHOOL

SPECIFIC PUPIL RESPONSIBILITY	PERCENTAGE OF FACULTY JUDGING RESPONSIBILITY TO BE			PERCENTAGE OF PUPILS JUDGING RESPONSIBILITY TO BE			DIFFERENCE BETWEEN PERCENTAGES OF FACULTY AND PUPILS*		
	Very Im- por- tant	Rath- er Im- por- tant	Of Slight Im- por- tance	Very Im- por- tant	Rath- er Im- por- tant	Of Slight Im- por- tance	Very Im- por- tant	Rath- er Im- por- tant	Of Slight Im- por- tance
The pupil as an individual:									
Plays fair, does not cheat.....	100	87	11	2	13	-11	-2
Does something about own progress in school, plans ahead.....	96	4	72	26	2	24	-22	-2
Tries to use things previously learned in new situations.....	77	23	60	36	4	17	-13	-4
Admits mistakes and is willing to take the consequences.....	77	23	70	25	5	7	-2	-5
Gets to class on time.....	64	36	69	27	4	-5	9	-4
Asks self frequently how the practice exercises being used in class contrib- ute to the goal the group is trying to reach.....	55	36	9	36	47	17	19	-11	-8
Gets going "under own steam" at be- ginning of class.....	55	45	60	38	2	-5	7	-2
Hands in neat, legible papers.....	36	64	61	34	5	-25	30	-5
Relations between the pupil and his peers:									
Is considerate of others in the gym- nasium and on the playground....	86	14	50	44	6	36	-30	-6
Avoids ridicule, unkind laughter at the mistakes of others.....	86	14	65	30	5	21	-16	-5
Is quiet when others want to listen, work, or recite.....	77	23	80	18	2	-3	5	-2
Listens courteously in assemblies, co- operates in program.....	77	23	58	40	2	19	-17	-2
Avoids interrupting others in class or in meetings.....	73	27	65	32	3	8	-5	-3
Does not tease others during the class period.....	59	36	5	30	46	24	29	-10	-19
Helps all members of the group to feel at home.....	32	64	4	36	42	22	-4	22	-18
Supports pupil activities, such as athletic teams.....	27	68	5	48	40	12	-21	28	-7
Helps absent classmates get assign- ments, materials, etc.....	68	32	21	59	20	-21	9	12
Relations between the pupil and the staff:									
Keeps appointments and promises...	96	4	81	17	2	15	-13	-2
Does each assignment and accepted task as well as possible.....	86	14	87	11	2	-1	3	-2
Takes care of school property and equipment.....	77	23	75	23	2	2	-2

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TABLE 1—Continued

SPECIFIC PUPIL RESPONSIBILITY	PERCENTAGE OF FACULTY JUDGING RESPONSIBILITY TO BE			PERCENTAGE OF PUPILS JUDGING RESPONSIBILITY TO BE			DIFFERENCE BETWEEN PERCENTAGES OF FACULTY AND PUPILS*		
	Very Im- por- tant	Rath- er Im- por- tant	Of Slight Im- por- tance	Very Im- por- tant	Rath- er Im- por- tant	Of Slight Im- por- tance	Very Im- por- tant	Rath- er Im- por- tant	Of Slight Im- por- tance
Relations between the pupil and the staff— <i>continued</i> :									
Takes care of own make-up work and extra help needs	73	27	73	24	3	3	- 3
Completes assignments promptly, hands papers in on time	68	32	83	17	-15	15
Behaves appropriately when teacher is out of classroom; gets to work and does not disturb others	68	32	79	18	3	-11	14	- 3
Behaves appropriately in the library	68	32	61	35	4	7	- 3	- 4
Behaves appropriately in the room before class	59	41	37	57	6	22	-16	- 6
Displays reasonable conduct in the corridor	55	45	33	54	13	22	- 9	-13
Behaves appropriately in the lunch-room	50	50	37	59	4	13	- 9	- 4
Takes part in group work and discussion	45	55	53	42	5	- 8	13	- 5
Takes the lead when necessary to get things done	41	59	36	50	14	5	9	-14
Reports breakage and loss of school equipment immediately	41	50	9	49	36	15	- 8	14	- 6
Plans ahead for class group projects	36	59	5	29	56	15	7	3	-10
Plans ahead for club programs	32	54	14	26	49	25	6	5	-11
Gets assignments straight the first time	27	68	5	60	37	3	-33	31	2
Uses bookstore for "business" only	5	50	45	14	40	46	- 9	10	- 1
Presents absence slips, excuses, etc., without being reminded	59	41	20	52	28	-20	7	13
General relations:									
Shows courtesy to visitors	64	32	4	78	20	2	-14	12	2
Takes care of his own and other people's property	55	45	43	47	10	12	- 2	-10
Helps to keep the buildings and classrooms neat without too much urging	27	68	5	27	61	12	7	- 7
Takes part in drives—Red Cross, scholarship, etc.	27	68	5	45	42	13	-18	26	- 8
Leaves building by 5:00 P.M.	18	18	64	12	36	52	6	-18	12
Informs parents of important happenings at school	9	64	27	27	53	20	-18	11	7
Informs parents of progress in school work	4	73	23	47	40	13	-43	33	10

* A minus sign indicates a difference in favor of the pupils; an entry with no sign indicates a difference in favor of the faculty.

hands papers in on time"—were considered to be "Of slight importance" by at least some of the student body. On the other hand, only seventeen of the forty-two items were judged to be "Of slight importance" by at least one teacher.

FIVE AREAS OF PUPIL RESPONSIBILITY STUDIED INTENSIVELY

It was deemed inadvisable to attempt to deal individually and intensively with all the responsibilities listed in Table 1. Instead, the faculty accepted an edited and condensed list consisting of five rather inclusive areas. These areas with their subsidiary specific practices are listed in Table 2. Both intellectual and social responsibilities are included.

The general procedure now developed as follows: First, an attempt was made to accumulate precise illustrations of desirable pupil behavior involving the revised list of responsibilities. The illustrations were to be sufficiently objective and numerous to justify their use in some form of check list for subsequent evaluation purposes. Describing in explicit terms "good" and "bad" behavior, insofar as the acceptance of pupil responsibility is concerned, proved to be a frustrating experience. The staff did not get very far and, consequently, decided to appraise the situation directly.

Consequently a survey of the high-school pupils was made in order to obtain some description of the current status of acceptance of reasonable responsibilities. Four days were set

aside in the middle of February during which each member of the staff kept a record of specific instances of pupil acceptance or rejection of responsibility. In each case the name of the pupil was to be given, and the type of responsibility accepted or rejected was to be described. Mimeographed forms were provided so that these data could be recorded systematically and uniformly. More than nine thousand instances of pupil acceptance or rejection of responsibility were recorded. The actual counts for each of the five areas are given in Table 2.

This appraisal rested on the assumption that there would be general agreement among the teachers so far as identifying pupil acceptance and rejection of reasonable responsibility was concerned. It subsequently became evident that the agreement would be approximate only. Responsible behavior in the opinion of some teachers represented irresponsibility in the judgment of others.

As a next step, and immediately after the February survey, it was decided to pay particular attention to certain planned learning experiences which would, in the judgment of the faculty, be most likely to lead to the development of the sort of responsibility acceptance that was desirable. These experiences were not thought of as being restricted to any particular subject or course but were considered to be more or less school-wide in their application. Situations which proved to be successful were described in writing during the course of the semester

and, at the end, were brought together in a mimeographed bulletin. Illustrative of the type of learning experience recorded is the following, submitted by one of the industrial-arts teachers.

Shortly after our study of responsibilities began, I enlarged and expanded my pupils' foreman system in the shop. I had each class elect a shop superintendent to be responsible for appointing the various foremen, who in turn would be responsible to him. The superintendent was also to act as class chairman in a short business meeting at the beginning of each class, during which the pupils discussed their responsibility problems (not by such a name, however), considered ways of improving their work, and handled the reports and complaints of the foremen.

The plan has worked well. The superintendents were well chosen by the pupils in most cases, and they have done very well in accepting their responsibility. Some have shown considerable growth. Foremen who have been lax have been brought into line by superintendents. The physical operation and detailed routines of the shop have run much more smoothly since the plan was put into effect. The pupils take more interest in their immediate surroundings and get more work done.

The last step in the study involved making, at the end of the semester, another survey similar to that conducted in February. Four days near the end of May were set aside, during which the teachers again kept a record of specific instances of pupil acceptance and rejection of responsibility. These data were recorded on a mimeographed form similar to that used in the February survey. Unfortunately the days selected in May turned out

to be atypical, and possibly for that reason there was only slight evidence of growth during the course of the semester so far as the entire student body was concerned. Table 2 summarizes the frequency with which pupils accepted and refused to accept the responsibilities in the areas included in the table.

RESULTS OF A SEMESTER'S WORK ON PUPIL RESPONSIBILITIES

The summary at the bottom of Table 2 enables the reader to see at a glance the differences between the February and the May evaluations. Many more reports were received of instances in which children accepted responsibility than of instances in which they refused to accept it. The ratio actually was about ten to one. It is quite impossible, therefore, to expect huge absolute gains during the course of the semester. Statistically speaking, the over-all gain was significant. The observed gain in "Keeping appointments" and in "Showing consideration for others" would occur by chance less than five times in one hundred. The gains observed in "Getting assignments straight and completing them on time," as well as those observed in "Doing each assignment and accepted task as well as possible," were positive but of doubtful significance. Insofar as "Keeping promises" was concerned, there was a definite and significant regression during the semester.

In addition to these summary data, Table 2 also indicates: (1) that highly

TABLE 2
PUPIL ACCEPTANCE AND REJECTION OF RESPONSIBILITY
IN UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO HIGH SCHOOL

RESPONSIBILITY	NUMBER OF TIMES EACH SPECIFIC RESPONSIBILITY WAS OBSERVED		NUMBER OF PUPILS INVOLVED IN EACH SPECIFIC RESPONSIBILITY		PERCENTAGE OF PUPILS INVOLVED WHO ACCEPTED RESPONSIBILITY			PERCENTAGE OF PUPILS INVOLVED WHO REJECTED RESPONSIBILITY			CRITICAL RATIO OF DIFFERENCE BETWEEN FEBRUARY AND MAY PERCENTAGES*
	February	May	February	May	February	May	Increase	February	May	Decrease	
Keeping appointments:											
Make-up work	12	11	30	88	70	88	18	30	12	18	2.3
Conferences	11	6	24	11	88	100	12	12	0	12	1.2
Regularly scheduled appointments (classes, etc.)	26	31	844	1,053	97	99	2	3	1	2	3.3
Committees, boards, etc.	5	8	48	37	90	76	-14	10	24	+14	1.8
Office (including doctors)	3		22		100						
Keeping promises, relating to:											
Equipment	23	24	464	478	88	67	-21	12	33	+21	7.5
Behavior	17	7	443	97	94	88	-6	6	12	+6	2.1
Appointments	10	7	37	172	65	99	34	35	1	34	7.3
Academic obligations	10	16	107	490	92	95	3	8	5	3	1.2
Extra-curriculum obligations	8	9	105	112	71	85	14	29	15	14	2.5
Getting assignments straight and completing them on time:											
Those done in class	22	18	513	336	94	93	-1	6	7	+1	0.6
Those done outside of class	16	18	365	292	89	84	-5	11	16	+5	1.9
Written directions	7	12	227	160	96	93	-3	4	7	+3	1.4
Oral directions	17	16	427	288	67	92	25	33	8	25	7.8
Requiring initiative or self-direction	12	19	192	353	85	92	7	15	8	7	2.6
Completed on time	33	13	712	618	87	81	-6	13	19	+6	3.0
Showing consideration for others:											
Not interrupting others	41	40	1,039	787	92	93	1	8	7	1	0.8
Not wasting time of teacher or others in class	33	30	805	526	93	91	-2	7	9	+2	1.3
Making proper use of classroom materials	14	15	324	577	98	99	1	2	1	1	1.4
Returning classroom materials to proper place	25	13	480	684	94	96	2	6	4	2	1.5
Doing each assignment and accepted task as well as possible:											
Written work done according to accepted standards	29	20	515	484	83	92	9	17	8	9	4.3

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TABLE 2—Continued

RESPONSIBILITY	NUMBER OF TIMES EACH SPECIFIC RESPONSIBILITY WAS OBSERVED		NUMBER OF PUPILS INVOLVED IN EACH SPECIFIC RESPONSIBILITY		PERCENTAGE OF PUPILS INVOLVED WHO ACCEPTED RESPONSIBILITY			PERCENTAGE OF PUPILS INVOLVED WHO REJECTED RESPONSIBILITY			CRITICAL RATIO OF DIFFERENCE BETWEEN FEBRUARY AND MAY PERCENTAGES*
	February	May	February	May	February	May	Increase	February	May	Decrease	
Doing each assignment and accepted task as well as possible— <i>continued</i> :											
Content showing that pupil has thought through topic.....	20	10	434	207	90	95	5	10	5	5	2.2
Sticking to task, though difficult or disagreeable....	21	22	469	388	90	86	- 4	10	14	+ 4	1.8
Not asking for help until absolutely necessary....	12	13	305	280	96	90	- 6	4	10	+ 6	2.9
Not submitting work of others as pupil's own....	9	7	240	171	98	100	2	2	0	2	2.0
Summary:											
Keeping appointments....	57	56	968	1,189	95.5	97.1	1.6	4.5	2.9	1.6	2.0
Keeping promises.....	68	63	1,156	1,349	88.1	84.3	- 3.8	11.9	15.7	+ 3.8	2.7
Getting assignments straight and completing them on time.....	107	96	2,436	2,056	86.1	87.7	1.6	13.9	12.3	1.6	1.6
Showing consideration for others.....	113	98	2,648	2,574	93.3	94.8	1.5	6.7	5.2	1.5	2.1
Doing each assignment and accepted task as well as possible.....	91	72	1,963	1,530	90.2	91.3	1.1	9.8	8.7	1.1	1.1
Total.....	436	385	9,171	8,698	90.3	91.2	0.9	9.7	8.8	0.9	2.2

* A critical ratio of 2.00 or more indicates that the observed change during the semester has a probability of 95 (or better) chances in 100 of being a real and significant change. For a critical ratio of 2.50 the chances are about 1 in 100; for a critical ratio of 3.00 the chances are less than 3 in 1,000.

significant gains in the increase of responsibility acceptance were evident in the following: (a) regularity in getting to class on time, (b) keeping scheduled appointments, (c) getting oral assignments straight, and (d) handing in written work according to accepted standards; (2) that highly significant increases in the rejection of responsibility were evident in the following: (a) keeping promises relative to school equipment and (b) complet-

ing assignments on time; and (3) that positive gains in pupil acceptance of responsibility were evident in fourteen of the twenty-five items.

RELIABILITY OF EVALUATION

It was difficult to measure the reliability of this method of evaluation. The pupils went to various teachers during the four-day periods so that dividing the teachers into two groups and comparing the frequency of report

on one pupil by each group would not be useful. There was a correlation of $+ .42$ between the ranks of the pupils mentioned most frequently as delinquent in February and their ranks by the same criterion in May. This period, however, is a long interval on which to base a reliability estimate.

CONSEQUENCES OF THE STUDY

One of the interesting findings of the attempts at evaluation was that a relatively small number of pupils accounted for a very large percentage of the instances of responsibility refusal. Whereas the average number of instances of refusal of responsibility approximated only three per pupil, one eighth-grade boy refused to accept what teachers thought to be reasonable responsibility seventeen times during the February evaluation and thirteen times during the May evaluation. The prize in this sense was earned by another eighth-grade boy who was mentioned no fewer than twenty-seven times for refusing to accept responsibility during the February evaluation and thirteen times during the May.

As part of the remedial program those pupils who apparently were in the habit of rejecting responsibility were made the subject of special study by their teachers. The evaluation served to identify children who were atypical.

Despite the fact that the net gain

from the February to the May evaluation was small, the staff continued to feel that it was working on an important problem. As the reader might well imagine, the ramifications were extensive. In some cases the pupils felt definitely that they were expected to accept responsibilities for acts that had little or no significance; that they were expected to do things because they were told to do them, without too much consideration of the importance of the tasks.

In a number of cases the faculty expected from the pupils types of behavior which were quite at odds with the way the faculty itself behaved. Promptness in coming to class was emphasized by the staff at the same time that some teachers were not prompt in attendance at assemblies. Pupils were expected to meet certain deadlines with respect to assignments while staff members admitted that they themselves frequently forgot or overlooked their own deadlines. Pupils were expected to show friendliness to new pupils while some members of the staff spoke to none of the new pupils when they met them in the hall.

The study made clear the interrelatedness of all activities in the high school. Any investigation of pupil acceptance of responsibility leads almost immediately to the curriculum, to guidance, to teacher-pupil evaluation, to peer relations, to extra-curriculum activities, and even to a reconsideration of budget expenditures.

THE RELATION OF LOCAL SCHOOLS TO YOUTH WORK PROGRAMS

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COUNTEROBJECTIONS TO JUDD CLUB REPORT

THE Judd Club, a group of high-school principals in, and suburban to, Chicago, presented in an earlier number of this journal the club's official report¹ on the recent recommendations of the Educational Policies Commission with respect to youth work programs in the school. Fifty high-school administrators, representing schools which enrol approximately a hundred thousand pupils, were present when the report was adopted unanimously. The reactions of so important a group of educational administrators regarding a much discussed subject deserve careful consideration.

The following assumptions constitute a basic feature of the Judd Club's report.

1. Modern life has become so complex that the school should not attempt to administer all public activities which assist in the development of young people. Certain activities, such as public works for out-of-school youth, employment service, adequate recreation, and public health, are primarily the concern of the federal government.

2. When conditions, such as the unem-

ployment of young people, are of such magnitude as to be of national concern, the federal government has the responsibility, under the general-welfare clause, of ameliorating the condition. This assumption has a basis in Supreme Court decisions.

3. The school has the duty and obligation to co-operate with, and to co-ordinate, all agencies which aid in the development of young people—private industry, public works, and community activities.²

To the last sentence of the first assumption many educational leaders would take immediate and emphatic exception. The pronouncement that "certain activities, such as public works for out-of-school youth, employment service, adequate recreation, and public health, are primarily the concern of the federal government" is not convincing. Nor is the supporting discussion which is presented in the report. Certainly these matters are at least as much the concern of the community in which the youth live as they are of the government in Washington, D.C., regardless of the complexity of modern life. The important matter is the manner in which each of these two institutions should give expression to its concern.

The second assumption appears to

¹ Judd Club Committee, "The Relationship of Local Schools to Youth Work Programs," *School Review*, L (February, 1942), 97-106.

² *Ibid.*, p. 99.

merit general acceptance. However, the best procedure for the federal government to follow in ameliorating the condition referred to is omitted from the assumption and from its immediate discussion. Again the important question is: How should this be done? Should it be done *directly* in the several states through such federal agencies as the National Youth Administration and the now disbanded Civilian Conservation Corps, which are independent of the nation's long-established educational agency? Or should it be done through that established agency—the United States Office of Education—and state educational authorities, in the same manner in which the federal government has long carried on its vocational-education program?

The third assumption, too, appears to be acceptable if "school system" were substituted for "school," save that it does not go far enough. The agency set up and maintained by society for the purpose of providing organized education in a community not only should co-operate but should lead in bringing about the co-ordination of all agencies which aid in the development of young people in that community. Acceptance of this assumption does not, however, involve acceptance of the Judd Club's conclusion that the "ultimate hope" with reference to employment service for youth, work projects for unemployed youth, recreational activities, and other activities designed for the development of young people "is co-operation with federally operated agencies."

Turning now to the proposals based on these assumptions, the Judd Club agrees with the Educational Policies Commission that the federal government should continue to provide funds to pay for work done by high-school and college youth in the student-aid program. In fact, the club goes further and maintains that such funds should be increased. The club recognizes that work experiences thus provided are good education for young people in school and, as such, should be administered by local school officials, "who should select, assign, transfer, promote, and dismiss workers."

There appears to be general agreement with this proposal, even though most school people administering the student-aid program have thus far looked on it merely as a means of enabling youth to remain in school rather than as an important part of the education of students receiving aid. Experience with the program will, no doubt, bring about increasing emphasis on the educational values of the work experiences and result in far better provision for realizing these values.

However, the Judd Club, while insisting that local schools have complete responsibility for administering and supervising this federally financed work program, sees no inconsistency in supporting the national administration of the program by the National Youth Administration—an agency organized for relief purposes—rather than by the United States Office of Education through state educational authorities, as the regular, federally

aided vocational-education program is administered. Certainly the latter method, which is supported by the Educational Policies Commission, is more logical and more in harmony with past educational policies of the federal government. Indeed, in 1933 President Roosevelt, in the interests of economy and centralization of national responsibility for education, transferred the activities of the Federal Board for Vocational Education, then an independent agency, to the United States Office of Education. Why should one part of the federally aided vocational-education program carried on by local schools be administered nationally by the Office of Education and another part by an agency that was set up for other than educational purposes? (The Judd Club itself classifies the work part of the student-aid program as vocational education.)

With reference to work programs for out-of-school youth who are unemployed, both the Judd Club and the Educational Policies Commission recognize the educational values of such programs, but the former insists that these should be carried on, in the future as in the past, by federal agencies such as the C.C.C. and the N.Y.A., with the schools furnishing "related education." Here is pronounced disagreement with the Commission's recommendations. The Commission proposed that the C.C.C. and the N.Y.A. be discontinued as separate youth agencies "as soon as they have completed their present emergency assignment of training workers for the national defense production program

.... that their functions as agencies of vocational training, general education, and guidance be transferred to state-and-local educational agencies; and that their functions as public works agencies be located with the general agency or agencies of public works,"¹ which have no educational purposes, rather than with special youth agencies.

In the writer's judgment, the Judd Club is right in insisting that public-works projects for unemployed youth, separate from similar projects for adults, should be maintained permanently. Provision of opportunities for these youth to obtain work experience as a means of preparation for obtaining and succeeding in private employment is essential in normal times as well as in periods of depression. The recent great depression did not create this need; it merely intensified and called attention, in emphatic manner, to a need that had long been overlooked. To separate work experiences from vocational training, general education, and guidance seems no more practicable in the case of these youth than in the case of youth in the student-aid program. Such separation certainly has not worked well in the N.Y.A. training program for defense industries, in which work experiences with pay are directed by the N.Y.A. and instruction in related subjects without pay is provided by the schools.

¹ *The Civilian Conservation Corps, the National Youth Administration, and the Public Schools*, pp. 5-6. Washington: Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators, 1941.

These activities should be carried on together, under the same management, as parts of a unified educational program. This statement does not, however, necessarily mean that federal agencies of the character of the C.C.C. and the N.Y.A. should be responsible for the program. It is quite possible to transfer both the public-works part and the more formal educational parts of the program to state and local school authorities.

In support of its objections to transferring this entire program to state and local educational authorities, the Judd Club argues that only a federally controlled program can expand or contract in accordance with employment needs of young people as these differ in various parts of the country and with changing economic conditions. It seems probable that few persons will accept this argument as sound. State and local school authorities often face the necessity of expanding or contracting their activities, including work projects in the student-aid program, in order to meet changing economic conditions. Moreover, the program of work for out-of-school youth will still be sufficiently controlled from Washington to care for needed expansion and contraction whether the federal money which supports it is expended through state and local school authorities or directly through the N.Y.A. or other federally controlled agencies.

Another argument advanced by the Judd Club against giving the school responsibility for providing work ex-

periences with pay for out-of-school unemployed youth is that this responsibility would increase the chances of the school administrator's losing his job. It is argued that, since goods and services must be produced and disposed of if a work program is carried on, conflicts with local labor and industrial interests are likely to arise which are dangerous to the tenure of the local school administrator and even to the existence of the program itself. Therefore let Uncle Sam do the job! Is it not quite as probable that the school administrator's tenure will be strengthened rather than weakened and that the school will gain in local popularity and support because of contacts made with representatives of labor and industry in working out a program of this type? In any case, the important question is not whether such a program will prove dangerous to school administrators, much as all friends of education want to see these men protected from unjust attacks, but rather what agency can best do the job.

When this question is answered, the nature of the task to be done must be kept in mind. That it is primarily an educational job, concerned with helping youth to become more employable and better fitted for the activities which normally follow the school period, has come to be generally accepted. Both the Judd Club and the Educational Policies Commission appear to hold this view. The same view was clearly expressed in President Roosevelt's letter to Congress in 1939 when

he proposed that the C.C.C. and the N.Y.A. be transferred to the Federal Security Agency which his reorganization plans provided. Regarding the C.C.C. the President said, "... its major purpose is to promote the welfare and further the training of the individuals who make up the corps." Of the N.Y.A. he said, "... its major purpose is to extend the educational opportunities of the youth of the country and to bring them through the processes of training into the possession of skills which enable them to find employment. . . . work projects . . . have been merely the process through which its major purpose was accomplished."¹

True, many who recognize clearly that the job to be done is an educational job nevertheless agree with the Judd Club that the federal government should do it. Some of these base their argument on the fact that constituted educational authorities have, in the past, failed to serve properly the needs of out-of-school youth. This view is presented in the recent report of the American Youth Commission.²

It is fair to remind those holding this view that the constituted educational authorities have not had hundreds of millions of federal dollars each year with which to do this particular job. At the time this problem became

most acute, they were receiving decreased income with which to care for expanding activities along established lines. If given the responsibility and the same federal assistance for this job, they might do at least as well as agencies that were originally set up and staffed for other than educational purposes. Again, why should the federal government consider it necessary to spend directly in the different states, through the N.Y.A., the major part of the money which it provides for education while spending the remainder (Smith-Hughes, George-Deen, and war industries training funds) through state and local school authorities?

Another argument sometimes advanced is that state and local school systems are not organized to conduct public-works projects for the unemployed youth in an efficient manner. This is true at the present time, but changes in organization to meet the situation are quite possible. It is the business of state and local educational authorities to adapt the organization, the activities, and the procedures of public education to the changing needs of society. One of the greatest difficulties under which discussion of this problem suffers is the tendency to think only in terms of *present* educational organization. If the federal government would apportion annually to state educational authorities for the needs of unemployed youth the amount of money that it provided the C.C.C. and the N.Y.A. and would provide leadership and general administrative control through the

¹ *Congressional Record: Proceedings and Debates of the 76th Congress, First Session (Senate)*, LXXXIV, Part 5 (April 25, 1939), 4710.

² *Youth and the Future*. General Report of the American Youth Commission. Washington: American Council on Education, 1942.

United States Office of Education, there is every reason to believe that an efficient type of program, including and revolving around work projects, would result. The program would then be closely related, as it is not now, to what is done for other groups of out-of-school youth in the community—groups from which the unemployed come and groups into which they will go later.

NEW LOCAL ORGANIZATION TO
CARE FOR UNEMPLOYED
YOUTH

In the writer's judgment, three important changes in educational organization are necessary in order fully to care for the situation, all three of which should also make significant contributions to other aspects of public education. The proposed changes are:

1. State educational authorities in each state should establish a division with the responsibility for setting up and maintaining resident work centers as needed for unemployed youth, replacing similar centers operated by the N.Y.A. These centers would serve also as state vocational schools.

2. The local school system should develop a new unit beyond the high school, but radically different from the junior college, into which *all* youth would be transferred upon leaving school, much as pupils are now transferred from elementary school to secondary school.

3. In rural areas and small towns the unit of school organization should

be greatly enlarged, as has been so often proposed. The organization would probably become county wide, with a single board of education and with an appointed superintendent of schools.

In this discussion attention can be given only to the second of these proposals.

Until a better name can be found for the proposed new unit of the local school system, it might well be called an "adjustment institute." It would serve as an occupational induction agency and as an agency for inducting youth into other activities of adult life. Regardless of the grade completed, *all* out-of-school youth of the community would be charges of the institute. The new institution would be responsible for studying and serving the needs of each youth, using for this purpose all the proved techniques of guidance and education. Some young persons might remain for months or even years as full-time members of the institute because of inability to obtain private employment or lack of ability or desire to enter another educational institution. Thus the unemployed youth of the community, with whom this article is most concerned, would constitute an important group in the membership of the institute. For these young folks, the institute would, while doing its best to place them in suitable private employment, provide a program of part-time work with pay, accompanied by suitable guidance and educational activities.

In larger cities the institute might

provide some full-time work projects. In smaller communities, and to some extent in larger ones, the institute would recommend youth for the state resident work centers and receive these youth back into its care upon completion of this work. With responsibility for helping youth obtain employment, for providing part-time work with pay if full-time work is not available, and for many other services which cannot be considered here, the adjustment institute should, if its work is well done, promptly win the confidence and support of both youth and adults. It should come to be looked on as the community's own agency for continuing the educational program of its elementary and secondary schools and for building a better community as well as for aiding the youth of the locality to find their way into the activities of adult life.

In each community the problem of out-of-school youth would thus be placed in the hands of a local agency

whose business is education. In a sense, these youth are the product of that agency. It has spent eight to fourteen years in preparing them for activities that lie ahead. Its job is not yet done when they leave school any more than the automobile company's job is done when its product leaves the assembly line. The automobile company finds it necessary to sell its cars and trucks, or to place them, where they have a chance to function as intended. Having sold them, the company then provides free service, replacing defective parts if necessary, until the machines are broken in or adjusted to proper performance of their intended functions. Let the local school system place and service, in similar manner, its far more valuable product until the youth have reached the age of twenty-one. Let there be a special unit of the school system designed for this particular purpose and financed, in part at least, by federal funds.

CONSUMER EDUCATION IN THE HOME-ECONOMICS CURRICULUM

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PROBLEM AND PROCEDURE

A CHALLENGING article by Nystrom¹ has recently called attention to the fact that the role of the home-economics teacher is in danger of being overlooked in the present widespread interest in the "consumer movement." Although home economists have for many years been developing programs of consumer education, other enthusiasts are frequently presenting such training as something new. Nystrom contends that home-economics teachers are the logical teachers to continue the work.

With this suggestion in mind, one of the writers of this article undertook a study of the scope and content of consumer education in high-school courses in home economics. For this purpose recent courses of study issued by eight states (Alabama, Arizona, Indiana, Missouri, Montana, Ohio, Texas, and West Virginia) and four textbooks were analyzed. The courses of study were chosen from different areas of the United States, and the number was determined by the law of diminishing

returns with respect to new topics found. Many textbooks in home economics contained consumer-education materials. However, only the following secondary-school books were limited to consumer education in the home-economics course, and these were chosen for analysis.

Ruth Brindze, *Johnny Get Your Money's Worth (and Jane, Too!)*. New York: Vanguard Press, Inc., 1938.

Margaret Dana, *Behind the Label*. Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1938.

Ada Kennedy and Cora Vaughn, *Consumer Economics*. Peoria, Illinois: Manual Arts Press, 1939.

Mabel B. Trilling, E. Kingman Eberhart, and Florence Williams, *When You Buy*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1938.

Consumer education can be as broad as family-life education. Therefore, to delimit the study, consumer education was defined as "that education which is related to specific interests and needs of consumers," and the three levels given by Mendenhall²

² James E. Mendenhall, "Foreword," *Next Steps in Consumer Education*, pp. 1-2. Proceedings of a National Conference on Consumer Education Held at Stephens College, Columbia, Missouri, April 3, 4, and 5, 1939. Bulletin No. 1. Columbia, Missouri: Institute for Consumer Education (% Stephens College), 1939.

¹ Paul H. Nystrom, "Home Economics and Consumer Education," *Journal of Home Economics*, XXXIII (March, 1941), 145-47.

were adopted: (1) "buymanship," including the making of choices and the wise buying of goods and services; (2) budgeting—considering careful planning of expenditures and income; and (3) economic statesmanship, dealing with broad social policies.

In order to determine the scope and the content of the home-economics curriculum in relation to the whole field of consumer education, eight basic areas and seventy-one topics, based on Harap's classification,¹ were set up. The consumer problems and subproblems suggested for developing each topic became the instrument for further analysis. Content was determined by the number of source materials containing the variety of problems cited under each topic. Scope was based on content and was measured by the extent to which the problems covered all the topics of the eight basic areas.

CONTENT OF CONSUMER EDUCATION IN HOME-ECONOMICS COURSES

The findings showed that the scope of consumer education in the home-economics courses of study covered the eight basic areas set up for purposes of analysis and fifty-six of the seventy-one topics which developed these areas. Three areas were covered by 100 per cent of the courses: "Consumers' Goods," "Consumers' Financial Problems," and "Consumer Organization."

¹ Henry Harap, "Seventy-one Courses in Consumption," *School Review*, XLVI (October, 1938), 577-96.

The scope of the four textbooks differed slightly. A difference would be expected in view of the fact that textbooks in subject-matter divisions would be responsible for definite problems in their fields. The areas covered most completely by the four textbooks analyzed were those of "Consumer Organization," "General Buying Problems," "Consumers' Financial Problems," and "Principles of Consumption."

The area which received least recognition both in courses of study and in textbooks was that of "Consumers' Services." "The Consumer and Government" and "The Consumer and Public Welfare" were covered by 60 per cent of the sources. Both the courses of study and the textbooks indicated the greatest amount of content in the areas of "Consumers' Goods," "General Buying Problems," and "Consumers' Financial Problems." Fewest problems were found under "Consumers' Services" and "The Consumer and Government."

Both source materials contained a total of 157 problems and 104 subproblems under the 71 possible topics. Of these, the courses of study developed 146 problems and 96 subproblems; the textbooks, 107 problems and 48 subproblems.

The types of problems found indicate that home-economics teachers stress information, standards, and criteria for buying food, clothing, and other household equipment and supplies; they emphasize the problems of

advertising in respect to labels and specifications, standards and grades; and they teach how to plan the use of income. Apparently they are less concerned with problems which develop better understanding of the consumers' relation to business and industry, his responsibilities with regard to housing and other public-welfare projects, and his protection by law and by such agencies as bureaus of public health and the Federal Trade Commission.

FORM OF CONSUMER EDUCATION

The form of consumer education is another interesting curriculum problem. Therefore, in addition to scope and content, the eight courses of study were examined for form. None suggested semester courses in consumer education. Fifty per cent specified that some of the phases of consumer education should be included within a course of home economics already being offered and suggested an approximate number of weeks to be devoted to the unit. Twenty-five per cent suggested such a unit without specifying the amount of time to be spent. Twenty-five per cent did not designate their problems as consumer education. A student may study the buying of clothing and household equipment in units on "Clothing Selection" and "Home Furnishing," and she may solve additional problems in a unit on "Our Buying Problems." In

form, then, consumer education cuts across all areas of home economics and, in addition, is commonly organized into separate units of work.

CONCLUSION

Consumer education is not new to home economics. The present study indicates that the home-economics curriculum is well developed in respect to scope and content of consumer education. Certain phases receive greater prominence than others, namely, "Consumers' Goods," "Consumers' Financial Problems," "Consumer Organization," and "General Buying Problems." The home-economics teacher is particularly well fitted to deal with problems of the home and the community. The areas which are less well developed are those of "Principles of Consumption," "The Consumer and Government," "The Consumer and Public Welfare," and "Consumers' Services."

It would seem that these wider socio-economic areas should be greatly strengthened. However, further studies need to be made of content in relation to objectives. Consumer education need not be limited to any one subject. Curriculum-making is a continuous process, and it should be a co-operative undertaking. The scope, the content, and the form of consumer education in relation to the entire school curriculum should be the subjects of careful study and experimentation.

REPORT OF TWO READING-ENGLISH CLASSES

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PLAN FOR READING-ENGLISH CLASSES

IN FEBRUARY, 1941, Reading-English classes were organized in Beaumont High School for the purpose of providing special reading and English instruction for those pupils in Grades IX and X who were failing in regular English classes and whose school work in general evidenced need for improvement in reading skills. Two of the "Reading-English" classes were assigned to the writer. One class was composed of thirty-six ninth-grade pupils; the other, of thirty-three tenth-grade pupils. This article gives a report of the work done in these classes from February 4 to June 14, 1941.

Pupils placed in the Reading-English classes were retarded readers in one respect or another. The range in reading disability was represented at one end by pupils needing remedial instruction in the mechanics of reading and at the other extreme by pupils who had achieved fair ability in reading but who had failed to learn to read fluently and independently.

In the Reading-English classes, training in reading, with many varied reading experiences, was to be a center around which a related language-arts program would be developed. Instruc-

tion was to be a departure from that found in the regular English classes. The "classics" were not to be given attention except when maturing readers became interested in them. The individual needs of each pupil were to be studied. Special methods of instruction, individualized materials, and high motivation were to be applied to the reading needs. Emphasis was to be placed on training in study skills.

STUDY OF INDIVIDUAL CASES

A serious reading defect is usually but a sign that something else is wrong. It is true that any group of pupils requiring remedial care presents an exceptionally wide range of specific problems or individual differences. Since these specific problems are closely tied up with the maladjustment of individual pupils, attention to those maladjustments becomes an important part of remedial care and future school planning. Teaching cannot, however, serve such differences unless the differences are known. They should be discovered, to whatever extent is possible, and brought together in some form of case study so that individual patterns can be approximated and group trends noted.

Among the devices used to discover the needs of individual pupils were short written accounts and discussions on such topics as "My Favorite Books, Magazines, and News Articles," "The Best Way To Earn a Living," "Great Persons and Friends I Admire," "How I Felt When I First Came to High School," "My Saddest Experience," "My Favorite Radio Program," "What I Wish for Most." Such accounts reveal personal adjustment, tastes, and ambitions. They are a good means for getting acquainted with pupils.

Having pupils keep diary records for a few days offered another source of information about individual pupils. Diaries as a form of literature were first presented, and pupils were not aware that their diary records were to serve the purpose of studying individuals. Assignments for this writing and similar devices were casual, with the true purpose hidden. The diaries frequently revealed valuable data, such as amount of time allotted for study, types of recreation participated in, regularity of eating and sleeping, friendships, and family relationships. This information not only enabled the teacher to know her pupils better but also enabled her to be helpful in correcting faulty adjustments disclosed.

Administering brief questionnaires to pupils also yielded useful information. Questions of importance were scattered among questions of less concern, as shown in the following sample.

1. Have you a library card?
2. Name any book you have read entirely and liked.
3. Why do you think you failed in English last term?
4. Do you earn any money by working after school?
5. How many hours do you work daily for your employer?
6. Which of the moving pictures that you have seen lately did you like best?
7. Do you go to the picture show more than once a week?
8. Can you play any musical instrument?
9. What work do you do daily for your mother?
10. Do you live with both of your parents?
11. Do you hope to stay in high school until you graduate?
12. Which are your favorite school subjects?

Having the pupils write autobiographies threw much light on personal problems. The success of this device always depends largely on the skill with which it is presented to the pupils. In the Reading-English classes under discussion many important items about pupils' problems were learned from these autobiographies. Frequent changes of schools, illnesses, accidents, and other important facts were mentioned in these accounts. On the whole, the pupil autobiography proved a fruitful source of clues to maladjustment.

Another method of obtaining information was to interview the pupil. This interviewing necessitated the teacher's remembering the book being read by each pupil, particular papers handed in, hobbies, experiences, and other personalized facts concerning each pupil so that this teacher-pupil

relationship could be real, helpful, and friendly. Every possible chance to deal with the pupil personally was utilized. An attempt was made to have some interest in common with every pupil and to have a personal conversation with a large portion of the class day by day. Pupils soon sensed the sincerity of this interest and repaid with effort and co-operation.

OBJECTIVE MEASURES USED IN DETERMINING INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

The subjective estimates of pupil problems were reinforced by the administration of certain standardized tests. The following tests, selected so as to examine as many phases of adjustment as time permitted, were given: California Test of Mental Maturity, Cleiton's Vocational Interest Inventory, Bell's Adjustment Inventory, Morrison-McCall Spelling Scale, and Iowa Silent Reading Tests.

An individual "Pupil Adjustment Inventory" card¹ was made for each pupil, on which all known facts concerning his adjustment were brought together. Assembling information in this way made it very easy to note individual needs and to group pupils having a common problem. The form of this card was tentative, and changes were to be made as experience suggested improvements. The adjustment inventory cards of all pupils leaving the Reading-English classes

were filed in the office of the educational counselor of the school for use if later problems of adjustment should arise.

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE GROUP

It is too frequently assumed that retarded readers are pupils of low mental ability. Contrary to this belief it was found that the median mental age of the Reading-English pupils tended to come very close to normal age medians. This fact was determined by comparing the mental-age medians of the Reading-English group with the middle of the range of normal age limits for pupils entering the first three terms of high school. Although the Reading-English classes included the first four terms of high school, only the first three terms were taken into account. This plan was followed because only three of the fifty-eight pupils given the California Mental Ability Test were in the fourth term.

The median age norms for pupils entering the first three terms in high schools having semiannual promotions range from fourteen years and three months for the first term to fifteen years and three months for the third term. The middle age in this range is fourteen years and nine and a half months.² The mental-age medians for the entire Reading-English group were as follows: on the nonlanguage test, fourteen years and eight months; on the language test, fourteen years and nine months; on total

¹ A copy of this card will be sent to any interested reader who sends to the author a stamped, self-addressed envelope.

² David Segel, *Handbook for Compiling Age-Grade-Progress Statistics*, p. 3. United States Office of Education Pamphlet No. 83, 1938.

factors, fourteen years and eight months.

Classification according to intelligence quotients, presented in Table 1, again indicates that a majority of these pupils had average intelligence, or above. Forty-eight of the fifty-eight cases reported had average or better-than-average intelligence quotients on the language test. This find-

TABLE 1

DISTRIBUTION OF FIFTY-EIGHT PUPILS IN READING-ENGLISH CLASSES ACCORDING TO INTELLIGENCE QUOTIENTS ON CALIFORNIA TEST OF MENTAL MATURITY

INTELLIGENCE QUOTIENT	NUMBER OF PUPILS		
	Language Test	Nonlanguage Test	Total Factors
Above 140 ("near genius")		2
120-140 (superior)		1	4
110-120 (above average)	2	4
90-110 (average)	46	20	36
80-90 (dull-normal)	8	19	15
Below 80 (below normal)	2	12	3

ing would seem to indicate that most of the pupils in these classes would profit by remedial Reading-English instruction. Only twenty-seven pupils were average or above on the non-language test. On total factors, forty were average or above. Study of these fifty-eight cases points to the conclusion that pupils showing a language disability in school work should not be guided into nonlanguage pursuits as a means of effecting better adjustment, unless further study of the language factor is made.

Personal experience in teaching this group, questionnaires and other devices, and results on the standardized tests—all tend to show that much of the retardation of such pupils is rooted in poor personality adjustment. It is usually true that retarded pupils are the "hard-luck" members of the school population. This was especially so in the Reading-English classes being discussed in this article. Sixteen of these pupils were known to be living in broken homes or with foster-parents. Four homes were known to have problems of serious tension, three of which became police-court cases. Four of the homes had cases of prolonged or fatal illness during the term. Three pupils were seriously ill themselves, two of whom withdrew from school on account of their illnesses. Four pupils had speech defects; three were obese; one eighteen-year-old boy had the size and appearance of a fourteen-year-old pupil. Four pupils came from foreign and dual-language homes. Introversion, shyness, and defensive aggressiveness were handicaps of others. Five pupils were habitual truants.

The large proportion of unsatisfactory ratings indicates the extent to which remedial care must provide for better personality adjustment. This does not mean that poor adjustment should be accepted as an excuse for shortcomings. It means that the classroom must afford wider social participation, freedom from emotional tension, keener interests, and greater satisfaction. Fairness, friendliness, and

high motivation must be a part of every lesson.

Results on the Iowa Silent Reading Tests showed that rate and comprehension, paragraph comprehension, and location of information were the areas in which the group made the lowest scores. The group as a whole needed special training in these reading skills. Special groups were formed to provide training for pupils making low scores in areas other than these. The range of the reading grades was from 4.8 to 12.5, with a median of 7.6. The median retardation was 2.4 grades.

The general written work and standardized spelling tests showed a definite need for training in word study and spelling. According to the Morrison-McCall Spelling Scale, the range of retardation of the group, when spelling age and chronological age were compared, was from nine months to seven years and three months, with a median of two years and six months. Three pupils scored 0.5-1.7 grades above their grade placement, while the remaining pupils scored from 0.0 to 6.3 grades below. The median grade retardation was 3.0.

INSTRUCTION PROVIDED

Reading-laboratory situation provided in classroom.—The Reading-English period was ninety minutes, or a double period, in length, and classes met daily. The time was spent partly in work with the group as a whole and partly in giving help or training to smaller groups formed on the basis

of special needs. Some time was spent in supervised study, when work assigned in other subjects was studied. Study skills learned in the reading class were applied, and references were used under the direction of the Reading-English teacher. In this respect a reading-laboratory situation was set up.

The laboratory idea was carried further to include other Reading-English experiences, such as guided free reading; actual lessons and supervised work in the school library; and reading-discussion groups, in which topics were discussed and source and reference materials were located and read at any point in the discussion when occasion arose. Formal assignments were reduced to a minimum. Reading initiated by individuals and by groups was given preference.

The Reading-English classroom was arranged as much like a library as possible. Dictionaries, reference books, newspapers, publications by the pupils of our own school, current magazines, and many books of suitable difficulty and interest were placed about the room. Pupils had free use of these materials. The pupil charged a publication to himself and took care of the routine of returning it, thereby obtaining practical experience in use of the card file and in alphabetizing and classifying books.

Magazines and newspapers.—In addition to a copy of one or more daily newspapers, the following magazines and papers, among others, were provided:

American Boy	Open Road for Boys
American Home	Outdoor Life
Aviation News	Popular Mechanics Magazine
Beaumont Caduceus	Reader's Digest
Beaumont Digest	Time
Boy's Life	True Comics
Field and Stream	Young America
House and Garden	
National Geographic Magazine	

All magazines were not supplied at each publication date. Such magazines as the *American Boy* and *Boy's Life*, which ran continued stories, were purchased regularly. Others were provided if requested.

Books.—The books placed on the bookshelf included a fair proportion of classics, some of which were books usually required of ninth-grade pupils. They were selected, however, on the basis of vocabulary difficulty. A large number of the reading-shelf books dealt with stories and interests of the present day, for retarded readers seem more disposed to read books with contemporary settings. This preference may not be wholly a matter of interest appeal; it may be due to the fact that, because their defective reading ability has cut them off from much of the vicarious experience gained by good readers, their perceptual background is practically limited to experiences here and now. Weak readers, confused by complexities of historical, geographic, and classical reference, cannot be expected to undertake independent reading even if the story interest is sufficient to attract them.

A large number of successful pupils

from the regular English classes volunteered to lend some of their own books for use in the Reading-English classes. These books told simple stories of football, baseball, skiing, submarines, jungles, vocations, school life, friendships, adventure, and mystery. The criticism might be offered that such books had little to contribute to reading maturity, but, since they had been read and were still being enjoyed by pupils whose reading tastes were maturing, it was reasonable to believe that they were suitable for the initial efforts of pupils who had perhaps never read an entire book.

For group work, three publications proved to be very useful: Knight and Traxler's *Read and Comprehend*,¹ Guiler and Coleman's *Getting the Meaning*,² and *Reading Is Fun*.³ The first book offers a variety of exercises in some of the essential areas of Reading-English, such as vocabulary, rate and comprehension, newspaper reading, poetry reading, and use of the library.

The usual objection to workbooks was overcome by relating all exercises immediately and directly to practical experience. For example, skimming was applied to extensive reading; newspapers and assignments from newspapers were used in class; the

¹ Pearle E. Knight and Arthur E. Traxler, *Read and Comprehend*. Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1937.

² W. S. Guiler and J. H. Coleman, *Getting the Meaning*, Books I, II, and III. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1940.

³ Frances Bragan Richman (editor), *Reading Is Fun*. Syracuse, New York: L. W. Singer Co., 1940.

school librarian and the teacher conducted class work in the school library; comprehension was checked by multiple-choice tests and tests measuring comprehension of specific detail and ability to follow precise directions.

Guiler and Coleman's workbooks, *Getting the Meaning*, provide practice in the use of fundamental study skills. The subject matter of these workbooks is appropriately chosen, and the exercises are well devised. Results are easily scored and have been reasonably well standardized for the different grades.

Reading Is Fun! is a new-type anthology especially prepared for pupils with reading disabilities. It contains poetry, prose, and drama, which are close to the experiences of the pupils.

In addition to these three publications, miscellaneous cut-up books and stories were used.

Graphing of daily work.—One of the most stimulating methods for getting pupils to take a lively, continuous interest in their progress is to have them try to improve their own records from day to day. This motivation was provided by keeping individual graphs which showed the grade level achieved in silent-reading exercises. Each pupil received a sheet on which there were forms for graphing the thirty-six lessons of each of the three Guiler and Coleman workbooks. After each exercise had been finished, the pupil scored it, determined the grade level of the score according to a scale appearing at the end of each lesson, and

recorded the result on his graph in lead pencil.

As a means of further developing pupil purpose, three other factors were added to the graphic charts, which, in addition to intensifying interest in the daily rise of the silent-reading graph line, brought the pupil's attention to his total reading adjustment.

1. The pupil aimed to read better than he did on the Iowa Silent Reading Tests administered on February 3, 1941. This aim was made real to the pupil by drawing a red line across the chart at the grade level of the February reading grade. From lesson to lesson the pupil could easily compare the lead-pencil line indicating the level of his silent reading with the level of the red line, which he understood to be his beginning reading grade.

2. He aimed to make his reading-grade level come nearer each day to his current grade placement. His accomplishment of this aim was easily noted from one day to another because a green line was drawn across the chart at his grade-placement level. As the term progressed, this line was moved higher on succeeding charts, and the pupil was thereby constantly urged to keep his silent reading apace with the advancing green line.

3. The pupil aimed to have his final reading-test grade at or above his grade-placement level. Each pupil knew that at the end of the term he would be given a second standardized reading test, which would show how much he had raised his general reading

grade. This final reading grade was to be put on the chart as a blue line drawn across the last graph.

Teacher's use of graphs.—When a daily graph showed regressions or prolonged plateaus, the teacher gave individual attention to the problems of the owner of the graph. These individual contacts were effective because pupils could see the objective proof of their reading problems.

Failure often resulted from inability to note details or to follow precise directions. In other cases, dictionary work was needed to aid vocabulary study, or some pupil needed assistance in learning to find the central thought of an exercise.

Rate and comprehension could be brought to the pupils' attention and objectively estimated by reference to the graphs. If a pupil's graph line was moving along rapidly but was not rising, it was easy to see that comprehension was being sacrificed for speed, and the teacher could help the pupil grasp the importance of comprehension and could advise a slower rate. If another's graph line did not move forward with the majority of the group but was consistently high, rate could safely be stressed.

Slow, poor readers whose lines neither rose nor moved forward in keeping with the rest of the class were given special remedial instruction in separate groups. While individual pupils were getting help of the particular kinds needed, other pupils were working on their exercises independently, each at his own rate.

APPRAISAL OF RESULTS OF READING-ENGLISH INSTRUCTION

Signs of general improvement.—Pupils of the Reading-English classes gave many signs of improved adjustment. Trifling and idling disappeared. Pupils became interested, reliable, and, in a great measure, self-directing. They worked independently in their workbooks and were faithful in preparing assignments. Many read extensively from books and magazines selected from the reading shelf. The classroom was always neat, and materials were given excellent care.

Spelling improvement.—According to scores on the Morrison-McCall Spelling Scale, pupils showed substantial gains in spelling ability, as is indicated in Table 2.

Reading improvement.—On May 22, 1941, the Iowa Silent Reading Tests were again given to these classes. The individual reading grades of February 3 were compared with the final reading grades obtained. The data in Table 2 indicate that large reading gains were made in a gratifying number of cases. Thirty-five pupils, or 67.3 per cent of the total group, gained one grade or more. Twenty-three of these thirty-five pupils, or 44.2 per cent of the total group, made an improvement of a grade and a half or more. Nine pupils showed no outstanding improvement or a loss. The median gains of the two classes show that in general the groups made decided progress. The median reading grade of the ninth-grade pupils was 6.0 at the beginning of the instruction,

while at the end of the term the median reading grade was 8.1—a gain of

TABLE 2
DISTRIBUTION OF PUPILS ACCORDING TO
GAINS MADE IN SPELLING AND
IN READING GRADES

GAIN OR LOSS	SPELL- ING GRADE	READING GRADE		
	Number of Pupils (51)*	Number of Ninth- Grade Pupils (22)	Number of Tenth- Grade Pupils (30)	Number of Pupils in Entire Group (52)
Gain:				
4.0-4.4...	1	1	1	2
3.5-3.9...			3	3
3.0-3.4...		1		1
2.5-2.9...	2	1	2	3
2.0-2.4...	10	4	2	6
1.5-1.9...	8	2	6	8
1.0-1.4...	9	5	7	12
0.5-0.9...	13	3	5	8
0.1-0.4...	5	3	2	5
0.0.....	2	1		1
Loss:				
0.0-0.4...	1			
0.5-0.9...			2	2
1.0-1.4...		1		1
Median gain..	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.4

* The numbers in parentheses show the number of pupils in the group or the class.

2.1. For the tenth-grade pupils the median at the beginning was 8.6 and at the end it was 9.8—a gain of 1.2.

Other evidence of reading improvement.—There were many indications that pupils were obtaining satisfaction from reading. Some spoke enthusiastically about books which they were reading. Some recommended books to others, and certain books had a "waiting list" as a result of popularity built up by pupils who had read them. Pupils often showed reluctance when books which they were enjoying had to be put aside for other work. Many pupils began going to the public library, and some took advantage of the "bookmobile" service. One boy said that he had used his library card fifteen times and that he "didn't know there were so many good books."

These things are not to be said of the reading interest of every single member of the group, but they describe the attitude of so many that it can be concluded that improved adjustment was the rule and not the exception. It should also be added that, although such signs of reading interest might normally be expected of any regular English class, in these special reading classes they were rightly hailed as true tokens of reading growth.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON THE ORGANIZATION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

GRAYSON N. KEFAUVER AND DAN McNAUGHTON

Stanford University

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THE various types of organization of secondary education received considerable attention during the past year. The war needs are reflected in the literature bearing on vocational education, the junior college, and the problems of youth. Articles on work experience indicate the attention being given this new phase of the youth program in the educational activity of various institutions. The special literature bearing on the junior high school is again very limited, as it was in the period of compilation preceding this one.

JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

526. ATKINSON, CARROLL. "Should a Junior-High-School Teacher Be a Distinct 'Type'?" *School and Society*, LV (January 17, 1942), 82-84.

A questionnaire study on the thinking of superintendents and teachers with regard to the need for a distinct type of teacher for the junior high school. The evidence indicates that the idea of a junior high school type of teacher is steadily decreasing.

527. HERRIOTT, M. E. "The Junior High Schools of California," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XVI (December, 1941), 460-64.

A description of several developments in the junior high schools of California over a thirty-year period.

528. KEFAUVER, GRAYSON N. "The Curriculum of the Junior High School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXVI (March, 1942), 118-24.

An interpretation of the program required to meet the special needs of early adolescence. Among the items noted are counseling, instruction in personal relations, and social problems.

529. MERIDETH, GEORGE H., and LEMKE, GLENN L. "Junior High School Program in a 6-4-4 Program," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XVI (December, 1941), 465-69.

A description of the four-year junior high school program in Pasadena.

JUNIOR COLLEGE¹

530. ANDERSON, VERNON E. "Inaugurating a Junior College," *Nation's Schools*, XXVIII (October, 1941), 55-56.

An outline of the essential problems faced by the school administrator who plans to establish a junior college.

531. ANDREWS, JOHN N. "The Junior Colleges and National Defense," *Junior College Journal*, XII (March, 1942), 389-98.

Draws attention to the many changes in junior-college education made necessary by the war.

¹ See also Item 21 (Hollinshead) in the list of selected references appearing in the January, 1942, number of the *School Review*.

532. CHAMBERS, M. M. "The Upper Years of Secondary Education," *School Review*, XLIX (September, 1941), 527-31.

Presents the case of the community junior college.

533. EURICH, ALVIN C. "What Educational Experiences Should the Junior College Offer for American Youth?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, XXVI (March, 1942), 49-59.

Contends that youth should have an opportunity to make a thorough inventory of their capacities and interests, develop their special interests, plan their own activities, have work experience, exercise their creativity in planning leisure activities, and find employment or pursue further education on completion of junior college.

534. HILLWAY, TYRUS. "The Junior College and the Adult Student," *Journal of Adult Education*, XIII (October, 1941), 388-91.

Believes that the junior college must not restrict its efforts to youth. If it is to become a community college, it must offer education for adults in the community.

535. HOLLINSHEAD, BYRON S. "What Are Our Junior Colleges Now Doing for American Youth?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXVI (March, 1942), 60-64.

Indicates some of the ways in which junior colleges are meeting changing times and the needs of students of new types.

536. JORDAN, CLARENCE LEE. "Current Issues in Accrediting the Junior College," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XVI (January, 1942), 328-31.

Experience with junior-college standards leads to some justification for their use but has revealed a need for a new type of accrediting, involving the objectives of such institutions.

ARTICULATION¹

537. AIKIN, WILFORD M. *The Story of the Eight-Year Study*. Adventure in American Education, Vol. I. New York: Harper & Bros., 1942. Pp. 158.

Presents an account of the organization, the findings, and the recommendations of the Commission on the Relation of School and College of the Progressive Education Association.

538. BALLYEAT, F. A. "Trends in College-Entrance Offerings," *School Review*, L (February, 1942), 121-27.

Studies of the credits presented by entering Freshmen at the University of Oklahoma in 1907, 1917, 1927, and 1937 show changes in keeping with modern thought on the secondary-school curriculum.

539. CAREY, KATHERINE LEE. "Articulating the Junior High with Other Units," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XVI (December, 1941), 477-79.

An interpretation of the necessity of making the passage from elementary school to junior and senior high schools as easy as possible. Describes units of instruction designed especially for articulation.

540. CHAMBERLIN, DEAN; CHAMBERLIN, ENID; DROUGHT, NEAL E.; and SCOTT, WILLIAM E. *Did They Succeed in College?* Adventure in American Education, Vol. IV. New York: Harper & Bros., 1942. Pp. xxiv + 292.

A detailed analysis of the careers in college of the students graduated from high schools participating in the Eight-Year Study.

541. EMME, EARLE E. "Predicting College Success," *Journal of Higher Education*, XIII (May, 1942), 263-67.

A description and a bibliography of recent research studies in predicting success in college.

542. ODOM, CHARLES L. "Closing the Gap between School and College," *Occupations*, XX (December, 1941), 194-97.

¹ See also Item 595 (Drought) in the list of selected references appearing in the December, 1941, number of the *School Review*.

Recommends a unified and continuous personnel service in which high schools and colleges participate and which will be of state-wide scope.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

543. KELLER, J. O., and PYLE, H. G. "Training for War Industry through the Schools," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, XV (February, 1942), 352-68.

Organization and training plans are discussed in relation to the job of creating a new working force of skilled craftsmen. Also expresses the hope that the program will teach workers what they are fighting for.

544. MAGILL, WALTER H. *Administering Vocational Education*. Guide to Action Series, No. 1. Minneapolis, Minnesota: Educational Publishers, Inc., 1941. Pp. xii+118.

A general treatise on the problems of vocational education.

545. ROTH, KARL M. "Better Get Back on the Beam," *Junior College Journal*, XII (January, 1942), 260-63.

Calls attention to some dangers in present practices of training men for national defense, particularly the curtailment of vocational education which has been offered under the Smith-Hughes Act.

546. SLATER, HENRY L. "A Co-operative Training Program in a Small School," *School Review*, XLIX (December, 1941), 761-65.

Describes the procedure by which businessmen and school people of Turtle Lake, North Dakota, worked together to plan a program of co-operative training, including aptitude evaluation and curriculum revision.

547. SMITH, LEO F. "Implications of Co-operative Work for Secondary Education," *School Review*, L (January, 1942), 17-23.

Stresses the importance of work experience on a co-operative basis as a part of secondary education.

YOUTH PROBLEM AND PROGRAM¹

548. BUTTERWECK, JOSEPH S. "Youth and National Needs," *Nation's Schools*, XXIX (March, 1942), 55-56.

An article in support of the National Youth Administration and the Civilian Conservation Corps.

549. EDUCATIONAL POLICIES COMMISSION. *The Civilian Conservation Corps, the National Youth Administration, and the Public Schools*. Washington: Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators, 1941. Pp. 80.

Advances the view that federal funds for these agencies should be continued but apportioned to state and local educational agencies, which would administer and control the educational activities for youth, and that, when the need for defense training is over, the Civilian Conservation Corps and the National Youth Administration should be disbanded as separate youth agencies.

550. JACOBSON, PAUL B. (editor). *Youth at Work*. Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Vol. XXV, No. 99. Washington: National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1941. Pp. 198.

This bulletin suggests a definition and a set of standards for work experience, outlines the need for work experience, and describes a large number of programs providing such experience.

551. JUDD, CHARLES H. "The Real Youth Problem," *School and Society*, LV (January 10, 1942), 29-33.

Contends that there are many good features about the organization of the Civilian Conservation Corps and the National Youth Administration and that we should be sure the needs of youth are being completely met before we do away with federal support.

¹ See also Item 79 (Wrenn and Harley) in the list of selected references appearing in the February, 1942, number of the *School Review*.

552. MCCLUSKY, HOWARD Y. "A Philosophy of Work Experience," *Progressive Education*, XIX (February, 1942), 72-75.

A presentation of the viewpoint that work experience, which has important biological and sociological bases, has significant value for general and vocational education.

553. MITCHELL, MORRIS R., and OTHERS. "Youth Has a Part To Play," *Progressive Education* (Special Supplement, P.E.A. Service Center Pamphlet No. 6), XIX (February, 1942), 87-109.

Deals with the part of youth in winning the war through participation in work-experience programs and employment-training projects.

554. WILLIAMS, AUBREY. "The Relation of the Program of the National Youth Administration to the Work of the Schools," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XVI (January, 1942), 236-44.

The problem as presented is to combine work and school in such a way as to enable youth to derive all the benefits of work experience without letting it interfere with their normal growing up. Defends a public-works program for unemployed youth.

555. *Youth and the Future*. The General Report of the American Youth Commission. Washington: American Council on Education, 1942. Pp. xx+296.

Deals with the problems of education, employment, health, recreation, and needs of youth, together with recommendations for the solution of the social, economic, and political problems faced by youth.

ADULT EDUCATION

556. BEALS, RALPH A., and BRODY, LEON. *The Literature of Adult Education*. New York: American Association for Adult Education, 1941. Pp. xviii+494.

A bibliography on adult education.

557. BROWN, LESLIE E. "The Public Library and Adult Education," *Bulletin of the American Library Association*, XXXV (June, 1941), 372-76.

Suggests ways in which the public library and the school can work together to provide more adequate adult education.

558. BRYSON, LYMAN. "Adult Education in Review," *Nation's Schools*, XXVIII (August, 1941), 34-35.

Adult education is presented from the larger viewpoint of the diffusion of useful knowledge and the creation of new knowledge through co-operative effort.

559. *Good References: Adult Education*. United States Office of Education Bibliography No. 64, 1941. Pp. 18.

A bibliography of useful publications on adult education.

560. GREIG, JAMES MASON. "Evening Junior College for Adults," *Junior College Journal*, XII (November, 1941), 154-56.

A description of the San Diego Evening Junior College program developed to meet the varying needs of students.

561. HOULE, CYRIL O. "Adult Education in the Evening Junior College," *School Review*, XLIX (October, 1941), 595-602.

The major characteristics of adult education are presented and related to the work of the junior college.

562. KENT, GEORGE. "A City That Goes to School," *Commonweal*, XXXV (January 9, 1942), 291-93. (Condensed in *Reader's Digest*, XL [February, 1942], 109-11.)

Describes an adult-education program planned to meet the needs of all groups in a city.

563. WILSON, ARTHUR JESS. "Adult Education for Civilian Defense," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, XV (February, 1942), 339-47.

Describes an adult-education program to train adults to take their places in the protection of the civilian population and of industry.

Educational Writings

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REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

ADAPTING A SECONDARY-SCHOOL PROGRAM TO THE NEEDS OF A COMMUNITY.—Too many books dealing with the high-school curriculum have devoted an undue amount of space to such matters as definitions of curriculum and objectives of secondary education. The person who is confronted with the problem of developing a curriculum appropriate for the needs of a particular school is not concerned about various definitions; neither is he concerned about an elaboration of the seven cardinal principles of secondary education repeated in practically every textbook written on the subject of the high-school curriculum. A recently published book¹ dealing with the curriculum from a practical point of view is a marked contrast to the traditional publication which usually left the reader confused and uninspired.

Since this book is written by a high-school principal who is describing the school program which he has designed for the school under his administration, the reviewer of the book finds himself confronted with the dual responsibility of appraising a school program as well as the book in which that program is described. This task is facilitated, however, by the fact that both are commendable.

The book has a conversational introduction. The author presents a vivid and amusing picture of the beginning of the new Wells High School, situated in one of the less fortunately endowed sections of Chicago. The reader is made to appreciate the many problems facing the principal, who was notified of his assignment just one week before the opening of school, while carpenters, electricians, and others were still rushing to com-

plete the building so that school could begin on schedule. A staff had not yet been selected, and no school program had been planned to meet the needs of a heterogeneous enrollment representing practically every nationality in Chicago.

Despite the adverse physical and social conditions under which the new program was being developed, the enthusiastic co-operation of the pupils and the community was sufficient to bring apparent success to every undertaking. If any of the innovations proved unsatisfactory or unsuccessful, no reference is made to them by the author.

The second chapter of the book, entitled "A High School Is Born," deals more specifically with curriculum development. It relates how a committee of teachers representing each subject field was charged with the responsibility of specifying the ways in which subject fields contribute to the accepted objectives of secondary education. Then each teacher was required to submit to the curriculum-planning committee what he considered a model unit of learning in his teaching field. The purpose of such procedure was to establish "a core curriculum—a body of experiences essential to the effective current and future daily living of all pupils" (p. 31). Consequently the sixteen high-school curriculums which had existed previously were reduced to three: general, commercial, and college-preparatory. Social studies, English, science, physical education, music, and drawing were organized around "centers of interest" or "social areas." The selected areas for Grade IX are illustrative: "The School," "The Home," "The Local Community," "The Metropolitan Community," "Conservation of Cultural and Material Resources," "Our Changing Methods of Production and

¹ Paul R. Pierce, *Developing a High-School Curriculum*. New York: American Book Co., 1942. Pp. xiv+368. \$2.50.

Consumption," "Governmental and Other Social Agencies in Co-operative Living," and "Work in Relation to Daily Living." A more detailed analysis of the units and the centers of interest is incorporated in a later chapter.

Because of its personal and narrative character, the book could hardly be recommended as a textbook for classroom use. It contains neither a bibliography nor extensive footnotes. A few references are listed, and an appendix contains the forms and other materials used in survey studies of the community activities and social backgrounds of the pupils. As a source of inspiration to those who are confronted with the practical problem of adjusting a school program to the needs of a community, this publication is highly commendable. Although it describes the program of a large city school, inherent in the description are many fine principles which are also applicable to smaller school systems. The humorous and narrative features of the book will prompt the reader to finish it in one sitting, much as he would a novel.

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A SIGNIFICANT PRACTICAL APPLICATION OF FACTOR ANALYSIS.—A battery of twenty-eight tests was administered in Swineford and Holzinger's study¹ to a total of 457 ninth-grade pupils in Thornton Township High School at Harvey, Illinois. On the basis of previous research, these tests were selected to measure a spatial factor, a verbal factor, a mental speed factor, a memory factor, and the general factor. Analysis of the data by means of the modified bi-factor method supported the previous identification of factors

and disclosed three additional minor factors. Of these minor factors, a number factor is the most important, but its correlations with the various tests were so low that reliable estimates of an individual pupil's possession of this factor cannot be made by means of these tests.

Analysis of the data of thirteen of the twenty-eight tests, selected on the basis of their reliability and of their correlations with the five factors, demonstrated that this shorter battery could be used instead of the longer one with little loss in reliability of total scores or of factor estimates. The twenty-eight tests required twelve forty-minute periods for administration, while the thirteen tests can be administered in a total time of three hours and fifteen minutes, preferably distributed into six sessions. Use of the shorter battery also means a substantial reduction in the amount of time needed for scoring and for handling the data. It is both defensible and feasible to administer the smaller battery to pupils entering high school each semester as a routine procedure.

A study was made of the relations between the factor estimates and school marks. It was found that the general and the verbal factors "are most highly correlated with school success, except for a 'halo' factor apparently common to all the subjects" (p. 53). Definite trends were also shown between the factor estimates and occupational preferences. Fourteen of the tests were administered a year later to 385 of the original pupils. The correlations between the annual estimates of the factors ranged from .665 to .805.

John Dewey has said that applied science may be more truly science than that which is conventionally called "pure" science. This study is a contribution to science in that, by demonstrating in a practical situation one of the methods of factor analysis, further proof is obtained of the scientific value of the techniques.

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¹ Frances Swineford and Karl J. Holzinger, *A Study in Factor Analysis: The Reliability of Bi-factors and Their Relation to Other Measures*. Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 53. Chicago: Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1942. Pp. xii+88. \$1.00.

PRINCIPLES OF SECONDARY EDUCATION UNCONVENTIONALLY SET FORTH.—Of the many books that have been written as introductions to the study of secondary education, none has been conceived in so egocentric an organization as the recent work of Wrinkle and Gilchrist.¹ These authors start their discourse and end it with the college student who is beginning his specialization in the field of secondary education. From his ambitions, problems, and felt needs, their book takes its orientation. Approximately one-fourth of its pages are given to Parts I and VI, entitled, respectively, "What Does It Take To Be a Successful Secondary-School Teacher?" and "What Must I Do if I Am To Be a Successful Teacher in Service?"

The remaining parts are focused more largely on the secondary school than on the prospective teacher. Their content may be made partially evident by citing their titles: Part II, "How Does American Secondary Education Happen To Be What It Is?" Part III, "What Is the Secondary School Supposed To Do?" Part IV, "How Is the Secondary School To Do What It Is Supposed To Do?" Part V, "How Can the School Tell How Well It Is Doing What It Is Supposed To Do?" The six parts of the book are taken up under a total of fifty questions which correspond roughly to the chapters of more conventionally organized books.

The effort of these authors to produce a book for a student-centered course is definitely promoted by the very personal, conversational style in which they have written, the first and the second persons singular being employed throughout. The reader seems to be listening to a fatherly old professor talking to his class, giving advice, suggesting readings, pouring out his ripened wisdom in a manner that is kindly, paternal, and at times highly subjective. However, the thoughts

expressed, the language used, the homely illustrations employed are sometimes so simple as more nearly to suggest a motherly junior high school teacher talking to her home room—for example, "When I was a youngster there was the wood box to keep filled. . . ." "Helping Dad and Mother is a different job nowadays in most homes" (p. 227).

To this reviewer the extreme informality, the sometimes trivial story-telling, the frequent use of the imperative mood which characterize this book result in many lines which seem hardly to justify the permanency represented by cold print. Must educational writers resort to such a style to induce college students to read their books? Need they seek to reproduce in textbooks the uncereemonious and discursive quality which is permissible and often effective in classroom discussions?

The limitations of the personal style of the book are evident at various points. Occasionally it seems that the kindly professor years for someone to react to his conversation. In order to keep it going and to give it the direction that he desires, he adopts devices which are a little strained. Other criticisms which are only partly inherent in the style employed are that the professor seems absent-minded at times and therefore repetitive. Sometimes he is altogether too allusive, forgetting that his audience consists of beginners in the study of secondary education who need some fundamental, forthright explanation of the matter which he is discussing.

Despite these derogations, much that is favorable may be said for this book. Parts I and VI constitute excellent practical orientation of the prospective teacher to his profession. They are well calculated to build desirable professional attitudes. The section on historical background and present trends in American secondary education presents pertinent facts succinctly and with an interpretation that should really affect the school practice of its readers. The descriptions of

¹ William L. Wrinkle and Robert S. Gilchrist, *Secondary Education for American Democracy: Principles and Practices for American Secondary Schools*. New York: Farrar & Rinehart, Inc., 1942. Pp. xiv + 554. \$2.75.

innovating forms in curriculum organization and of the newer ideas in evaluation of a pupil's growth are indeed likely to stir young people who have graduated from traditional high schools.

Undoubtedly the intent of these authors is to train teachers who will be creative, functional in their viewpoint, unafraid to break new ground and cast aside old stereotypes. A chief merit of their book is the exposure of many fallacious or superficial elements in school organization and practice. Without cessation they battle against academic formalism and endeavor to cultivate in their readers a disposition to sense and to work for real and fundamental values.

PERCIVAL W. HUTSON

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A BASIS FOR CURRICULUM EVALUATION.—Educational workers frequently face the task of evaluating the curriculum content in local schools. An appraisal of existing courses and some suggestions for revision of the secondary-school curriculum are provided in a recent volume¹ concerned with high-school pupils' expressions of their needs.

That the problem of deciding the knowledge, skills, and attitudes required by youth of high-school age is a complex one is indicated by the survey of studies of youth needs presented by the author. Some of these studies have defined youth needs in terms of the shortcomings of society in providing services for youth. In another group of studies, youth needs have been defined in terms of what adults believe these needs to be. Studies of a third group have been concerned with the psycho-biological needs of youth—studies made largely from the point of view of the psychologist of adolescence. An analysis of the foregoing studies reveals variation in the conclusions reached con-

cerning the relative importance of different needs of high-school youth. The study reported in the present volume was undertaken, not only to secure a more defensible statement of youth needs, but also to view these needs in relation to their "effectiveness as focal points for instruction and for organization of the curriculum" (p. 46).

The findings of the study reported in this volume were based on an inventory form administered to 2,069 high-school pupils in selected schools in rural Nebraska; rural Virginia; Oakland, California; and Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. The inventory form was divided into two parts. Part I contained descriptions of twenty courses which might be offered in a high school. Each youth was to indicate which five of these courses he would like to take if he were to enrol in the school for one year and which five he would want least to take. Part II, which served as a check against responses in Part I, consisted of 159 topics, or subjects, which might occur in the high-school curriculum. The respondent was to check all the subjects that he would really like to take. The findings were analyzed on the basis of sex, age, and intelligence quotients of respondents; religion of parents; occupations of parents; curriculum differences among the schools; and regional differences.

The author concluded that, in general, courses concerned with personal problems were of more interest to youth than those concerned with social problems and that problems such as those pertaining to parental relations, religion, and morals were problems to parents rather than to high-school pupils. In the opinion of the author, these expressed desires and needs of youth should not be overlooked by the schools in evaluating and revising the secondary-school curriculum.

Those persons who are concerned with the curriculum will find much interesting and stimulating material in the findings of this study. The survey of studies of youth needs presented in the volume should serve as a ready reference. The inventory form,

¹ Donald C. Doane, *The Needs of Youth: An Evaluation for Curriculum Purposes*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 848. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1942. Pp. viii+150. \$2.10.

with the data indicated, may serve as a check list in the evaluation of local practice. The author has handled the data in an objective manner, and the conclusions seem warranted. In an effort to catalogue youth needs in the framework of existing school courses, some youth needs (for example, the need for work experience) have necessarily been eliminated from the study. Some readers may raise the issue whether high-school pupils possess sufficient experiential background to be competent judges of what their needs are.

The chief merit of the study would seem to lie in the fact that the needs of youth catalogued have been expressed in the framework of courses already existing in a large number of schools. The volume should, therefore, be welcomed in local schools as a practical aid in making curriculum adaptations to these significant needs of high-school youth.

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MATERIALS ON DEMOCRACY FOR COLLEGE ENGLISH CLASSES.—In recent years compilers of materials for English courses of an introductory nature have tended to draw more widely on materials from other subject-matter fields, thus recognizing the problem of cultivating broad reading abilities, interests, and tastes. These efforts, however, have frequently resulted in a rather diluted treatment of scattered topics. It is refreshing, therefore, to find a recent compilation¹ of timely materials on democracy which is substantial in nature as well as varied in types of materials presented.

The compilers indicate their intention to stress "affirmations of achievement" and to subordinate "abstract discussion to living examples of democracy in action" (p. v). The selections, drawn largely from con-

temporary sources, are grouped about seven themes: (1) "The Voice of the People," an examination of various concepts of democracy; (2) "That All Men Are Created Free," a discussion of the concept of freedom; (3) "From an Unchallengeable Eminence," a presentation of the views of great leaders on democracy; (4) "Democracy in Action," testimonials from many walks of life on the personal significance of democracy; (5) "Education for Freedom," a consideration of the role of education in creating a free people; (6) "The Pursuit of Happiness," descriptions of many media involved in democratic expression; and (7) "Times That Try Men's Souls," a pertinent series of observations on the role of democracy in the present world-crisis. The selections represent such diverse types as poetry, the essay, letters, reviews, excerpts from extended writings, a radio script, and an illustrated script of a March of Time release. The contributors range from presidents of the United States to an unnamed letter-writer and include personalities from the fields of science, law, education, philosophy, the social sciences, journalism, and other liberal arts. Both laymen and professional writers, lexicographers and poets, contribute to a compilation marked by its catholicity.

Several features of the volume are noteworthy. An effort has been made to present both sides of controversial questions. For example, differing views on the nature of educational policies and curriculums are given. The inclusion of fictional and historical treatments of a given topic likewise affords illuminating examples of contrast in method. The body of selections proper is followed by a supplement containing "Notes, Questions, and Exercises." "The Notes aim to unify the whole volume, to invite discussion of the principles illustrated, and to place certain selections against the background necessary for their proper interpretation" (p. v). The questions and exercises are designed to stimulate discussion and to afford an opportunity for oral and written projects in composition.

¹ *Of the People*. Edited by Harry R. Warfel and Elizabeth W. Manwaring. New York: Oxford University Press, 1942. Pp. xii + 700. \$2.30.

They are directed to such problems as interpretation of meaning and analysis of literary style. The proper use of the questions and exercises, together with an index arranged according to types of materials, should add considerably to the flexibility and the effectiveness of the collection.

The functional unity of the book would probably be increased had the notes been incorporated into the body of the book as prefaces to the various units. In this way the orientation desired by the compilers would have been less artificial, certainly more convenient, and hardly an intrusion on the reader. A question may also be raised as to

the ways in which this volume may be used. Since the materials are of social-science content, yet have a definite orientation toward the work of the English class, they may be considered appropriate in either of these areas or in an integrated course covering both areas. The extent to which materials of this nature will actually be used in English classes remains to be seen. It is to be hoped that the obvious merits of the compilation will attract due consideration of its most effective possible use.

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CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY AND PRACTICE

- BAKER, HAROLD V. *Children's Contributions in Elementary School General Discussion*. Child Development Monographs, No. 29. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1942. Pp. xiv+150. \$1.85.
- BIBER, BARBARA; MURPHY, LOIS B.; WOODCOCK, LOUISE P.; and BLACK, IRMA S. *Child Life in School: A Study of a Seven-Year-Old Group*. With a chapter on the Rorschach Test by Anna Hartoch and Ernst Schachtel. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc., 1942. Pp. xii+658. \$3.75.
- BOSSING, NELSON L. *Progressive Methods of Teaching in Secondary Schools*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1942 (revised). Pp. xviii+778. \$3.25.
- CHAMBERLIN, DEAN; CHAMBERLIN, ENID; DROUGHT, NEAL E.; and SCOTT, WILLIAM E. *Did They Succeed in College? The Follow-up Study of the Graduates of the Thirty Schools*. Adventure in American Education, Vol. IV. New York: Harper & Bros., 1942. Pp. xxiv+292. \$2.50.
- Co-operative Effort in Schools To Improve Reading*. Proceedings of the Conference on Reading Held at the University of

- Chicago, Vol. IV. Compiled and edited by William S. Gray. Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 56. Chicago: Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1942. Pp. xii+338. \$2.00.
- EELLS, WALTER CROSBY. *Associate's Degree and Graduation Practices in Junior Colleges*. Terminal Education Monograph No. 4. Washington: American Association of Junior Colleges, 1942. Pp. vi+126.
- FOSTER, ROBERT G., and WILSON, PAULINE PARK. *Women after College: A Study of the Effectiveness of Their Education*. New York: Published for the Merrill-Palmer School by Columbia University Press, 1942. Pp. viii+306. \$2.75.
- GOODENOUGH, FLORENCE L., and MAURER, KATHARINE M. *The Mental Growth of Children from Two to Fourteen Years: A Study of the Predictive Value of the Minnesota Preschool Scales*. Institute of Child Welfare Monograph Series, No. 20. Minneapolis, Minnesota: University of Minnesota Press, 1942. Pp. xvi+130. \$2.50.
- HOBAN, CHARLES F., JR. *Focus on Learning: Motion Pictures in the School*. Prepared for the Committee on Motion Pictures in

Education. Washington: American Council on Education, 1942. Pp. xiv+172. \$2.00.

KNIGHT, EDGAR W. *Progress and Educational Perspective*. The Kappa Delta Pi Lecture Series. New York: Macmillan Co., 1942. Pp. xvi+148. \$1.50.

LEONARD, EDITH M., MILES, LILLIAN E., and VAN DER KAR, CATHERINE S. *The Child at Home and School*. New York: American Book Co., 1942. Pp. x+850. \$3.60.

MEDER, ELSA MARIE. *Youth Considers the Heavens: High School Students' Opinions about Man's Place in the World in Relation to Their Astronomical Information*. New York: King's Crown Press (a Division of Columbia University Press), 1942. Pp. x+60. \$1.00.

MILLER, WARD IRA. *Democracy in Educational Administration: An Analysis of Principles and Practices*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1942. Pp. x+118. \$1.75.

MORGAN, JOHN J. B. *Child Psychology*. New York: Farrar & Rinehart, Inc., 1942 (third edition). Pp. xviii+588. \$3.00.

OTTO, HENRY J.; BARNARD, J. DARRELL; DRENCKHAHN, VIVIAN V.; MILLER, FRED A.; and WOODS, WILLIAM G. *Community Workshops for Teachers in the Michigan Community Health Project*. University of Michigan Education Monographs, No. 3. Ann Arbor, Michigan: University of Michigan Press, 1942. Pp. x+304. \$2.00.

Selected Educational Motion Pictures: A Descriptive Encyclopedia. Prepared for the Committee on Motion Pictures in Education. Washington: American Council on Education, 1942. Pp. viii+372. \$3.00.

WATKINS, JOHN GOODRICH. *Objective Measurement of Instrumental Performance*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 860. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1942. Pp. x+88. \$1.60.

WINSLOW, LEON LOYAL. *Art in Elementary Education*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1942. Pp. xiv+294. \$2.75.

BOOKS FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

ALPERN, H., and MARTEL, J. *The Story of Calderón's "La vida es sueño"*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1942. Pp. vi+128. \$0.48.

Basic Social Education Series (for junior high school): *America's Oil* by Russell W. Cumley (edited by Helen M. Strong); *Looking Ahead: Choosing and Preparing for a Vocation* by E. W. Andrews (edited by J. W. M. Rothney); *Money and Banks* by Margaret M. Thomson; *The Newspaper in American Life* by Walter A. Wittich; *Our Inland Seas, the Great Lakes* by Janet Hull Zimmermann and Frank F. Bright; *Planning Cities for Today and Tomorrow* by Fred A. Crane; *Trade and Commerce* by Frederick V. Waugh; *The Wise Consumer* by Ruth Barry. Evanston, Illinois: Row, Peterson & Co., 1941, 1942. Pp. 48 (each). \$0.32 (each).

Canciones Panamericanas: Songs of the Americas. Published in collaboration with the Pan American Union. New York: Silver Burdett Co., 1942. Pp. vi+42. \$0.72.

ECKERSLEY, C. E. *Essential English for Foreign Students*, Book III. London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1941. Pp. xii+244. \$1.25.

A Graded Spanish Reader. Adapted for elementary students, with notes, comprehension and vocabulary-building exercises, and vocabulary by Harry J. Russell. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1942. Pp. xx+266. \$1.60.

Guide to Reading for High Schools. Annotated by High School Boys and Girls. Compiled by Bertha Carter and Essie Chamberlain. Illinois English Bulletin, Vol. XXIX, No. 7. Urbana, Illinois: Illinois Association of Teachers of English, 1942 (reprint of the 1933 revised edition). Pp. 54.

HINMAN, ROBERT B., and HARRIS, ROBERT B. *The Story of Meat*. Chicago: Swift & Co., 1942 (revised). Pp. xvi+292. \$1.00.

- KANY, CHARLES E., and SPERONI, CHARLES. *Intermediate Italian Conversation*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1942. Pp. vi+62. \$0.36.
- MCCALL, WILLIAM A., and HERRING, JOHN P. *Comprehensive Curriculum Test: For Junior and Senior High Schools*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1942.
- MCCALL, WILLIAM A., and HERRING, JOHN P. *My Personality Growth Book: For Junior and Senior High Schools, Colleges, Adults*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941.
- MAXEY, MIMA. *Acta Muciörum: A Second Latin Reader*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1942. Pp. x+144. \$0.96.
- MILLER, MINNIE M., and FARR, GERALDINE. *First Readings in Spanish Literature*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1942. Pp. xiv+172. \$1.20.
- PEABODY, GEORGE ERIC. *How To Speak Effectively: With Some Simple Rules of Parliamentary Practice*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1942 (second edition). Pp. xvi+108. \$1.25.
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